

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 16, 1879.

## The Week.

AS the Southern question, thanks to Mr. Blaine, was the first that occupied the Senate at the opening of the present session, so Mr. Edmunds made it first in order on the reassembling after the recess on Tuesday week. He introduced resolutions prefaced by carefully-stated truisms in regard to the validity of the Constitutional Amendments, and the interest of the whole country in having them enforced, and leading up to the concluding declaration of the duty of Congress to provide by law for the protection of citizens qualified to vote for members of Congress, and directing the Judiciary Committee to report a bill for this purpose. Mr. Edmunds proposed this as a New Year's measure of harmony, and asked that consideration of it might be postponed a week. The next day he introduced a joint rule of unquestionable value, which was referred to the proper committee, prohibiting any bill passed by either house from being sent to the other after 12 P.M. of March 1, and any bill or resolution passed by both houses from being sent to the President after 12 P.M. of March 2. The repeal of this rule is made dependent on a vote of three-fourths of the members present in each house after one day's notice. On Friday the Senate passed the Indian Appropriation Bill, with amendments, and on Monday a bill appropriating \$250,000 for a fire-proof National Museum adjoining the Smithsonian Institution.

The House has done little except to give the finishing blow (127 to 87) to the bill to reimburse William and Mary College for its losses in the war. Only three or four Republicans voted in the affirmative, and many Democrats in the negative. The work of the House has been interrupted by extraordinary mortality among its members, not less than four having passed away in the course of as many weeks, under circumstances which cause grave suspicion of the unhealthiness of the Capitol or of the city of Washington. Three of these were from the South, and all happened to be Democrats. The ablest of them by far was Gustav Schleicher, of Texas, a native of Germany, who had resided here since 1847; a man of training, independence, and industry, who set a shining example of the qualities desirable in a legislator, and whose removal from Congress is therefore a real calamity. His voluminous report on the Mexican border troubles is a monument of his zeal and research. Both houses paid him something more than a formal tribute on Monday, when the funeral services were ceremoniously but feelingly conducted at the Capitol.

The suggestion we made in our issue of August 8, 1878, that Congress should make no more appropriations of the public money for the benefit of communities guilty of fraud in refusing to pay interest on their loans, is, we are pleased to see, beginning to bear some fruit. Jackson County and Kaw township, Kansas, in which Kansas City is situated, are both shameless defaulters. The county in 1871 issued and sold bonds through its own agents to the amount of \$350,000; the town did the same thing to the amount of \$250,000, and put the money into a railroad, which is now in operation, and of which they are both reaping the benefit. Both, however, impudently refuse, without a particle of excuse, to pay either interest or principal of the bonds. At the last session of Congress they got an appropriation from the National Treasury for the erection of a new custom-house in Kansas City. We are glad to say that this has roused the indignation of the unfortunate bondholders, and they have petitioned the Secretary to refuse to build the custom-house until the county provides for the payment of its lawful debts, or, if

he has no discretion in the matter, to delay the work until an effort can be made to induce Congress to reconsider its action. The building has not been begun, and the bondholders are now going before Congress with the very strong argument that they ought not to be taxed for the benefit of corporations which have already swindled them.

The Supreme Court has before it a somewhat similar attempt at fraud in the case of Huidekoper against Macon Co., Missouri. This county issued bonds in 1867 to enable it to purchase stock in a railroad, and it paid the interest until 1874. The bonds were issued under the authority of the charter of the railroad, which provided that the county might "levy a tax to pay the same not to exceed one-twentieth of one per cent. on all the assessed property in any one year." In 1874 the county stopped payment and the State Supreme Court held that the county need only levy a tax of one-twentieth of one per cent. for all purposes, and that the bondholders must take whatever they could get out of that, which was of course nothing. This decision was overruled by the United States Supreme Court in a case raised by the holders of similar bonds issued by Clark County, but the State court disregarded the decision, and now the point has been carried up again to the Federal court on the bonds of Macon County. A great many of these defaulting counties feel that "centralization" has gone far enough, and that there is too much meddling at Washington with local concerns.

The United States Supreme Court has decided on appeal in the case of a Mormon named George Reynolds, convicted of bigamy by the District Court in Utah, that the United States statute of 1862, prohibiting bigamy in the Territories, is constitutional. The only difficulty now in the way of putting down polygamy is that of supplying proof of marriage, and getting monogamous jurors; but this, the Mormons having been put on their guard, may be great. They may provide a mode of marriage which it would be all but impossible to prove in a Gentile court; and it is only by attacking the rights of children born of such marriages that they could be seriously discouraged—we will not say prevented. The great support of monogamy, even among Gentiles, is, after all, not so much the law as social opinion. If a man's neighbors and friends in New York thought he might fairly have two wives, the law would prove but a feeble restraint. It is to be observed, also, that legal prohibitions owe their efficacy in a large degree to the fact that as a general rule they create a right which some aggrieved person is interested in enforcing. For instance, among us a bigamous man is almost always pursued by an angry monogamous wife, who spares no pains to bring him to justice. Our statute would be of little account, however, if the first wife held bigamous views herself, and was willing to enter into a matrimonial partnership with the second. It is not at all as easy as it seems to suppress practices which have a religious source, and which do not create victims who feel themselves to be victims.

Mr. Schurz has replied to General Sheridan's "Supplemental Report," and after some slightly sarcastic observations on the General's use of the word "disingenuous," he goes on to say that many of the charges refer to the administration of his (the Secretary's) predecessors; that more of them relate to agents who have been dismissed and abuses that have been remedied, showing that the General had not brought his knowledge up to the latest dates. Reforms are still going on in accordance with the recommendations of the report of the Commission of 1877, and had the General had time to look into the actual state of affairs, the Supplemental Report would have been a complete vindication of the Indian Bureau, instead of an attack on it. To the Secretary's letter is added a report of

Commissioner Hayt's, dealing *seriatim* with the charges of starvation at the various agencies, which he says have been continuously coming in from the military posts ever since 1875. He brings forward facts and figures to show that, in several cases at least, these accusations were unfounded; but that men of the standing and character of the Army officers should make them, if they were absolutely without foundation, certainly requires some explanation. What is quite certain is, that Secretary Schurz is a formidable controversialist. There is hardly a politician in the Republican party who has not felt called upon, during the past six years, "to take a whack at Schurz," and not one has done so without considerable subsequent mental suffering.

The *Cleveland Leader* recently called attention with much force to the fact that, in spite of all that has been said of the unsoundness of the West on financial questions, resumption has been largely due to the efforts of Western men—*e.g.*, Sherman, Grant, McCulloch, Garfield—and thinks this is an answer to various reproaches which have been cast on the West in this matter by the *Nation*. But no paper has more strongly acknowledged the services of Western financiers to the cause of sound currency than the *Nation* has done. We have never, for instance, allowed a year to elapse since 1866 without testifying to Mr. McCulloch's claims on popular gratitude and confidence, especially in the midst of the crazy period before the panic, when it was the fashion to talk of him as a man who had tried to ruin his country by robbing it of its "battle-born" greenbacks. The *Detroit Post and Tribune* points out accurately the difference in the position of the Eastern and Western press and politicians on the currency question. The Eastern hard-money papers were all along expressing the sentiments of their readers, while the Western papers which fought on the same side were running in the teeth of popular opinion, and the Western politicians like General Garfield were risking their seats. Let us hope that the well-earned credit which he and others are now enjoying will infuse a little courage and honesty into the dodging, shirking, equivocating statesmen of both parties.

The Cincinnati *Commercial* repels our imputations with regard to its failing, in common with the Cincinnati *Gazette* and Chicago *Tribune*, to support the Resumption Act in 1877, and demands to be "taken out of that crowd." What happened was that the *Commercial* "weakened," as the politicians say, in July, 1877, and declared on the 8th of that month that the Resumption Act "was not originally a wise measure," and that what ought to have been done was to

"organize such a state of things in the monetary system or machinery of the country as would have established a drift towards specie resumption, and let business solve the problem. . . . Having got the declared intent of the country to resume, it would have been, perhaps, wiser legislation to foster the sentiment in that direction by adhering to the excellent suggestions of Mr. Rowland's whereas, and omitting the designation of a day for the consummation of the Act."

It is true it admitted that, having been passed, the Act ought to stand, but the effect of such criticism, especially when accompanied with a paraphrase of the St. Louis platform, was undoubtedly to encourage those who were actively working for its repeal, and wanted to "drift" into the payment of their debts without naming any day when the creditors would get the money. In fact, the *Commercial's* plan of resumption ("to establish a drift towards resumption, and let business solve the problem") would have delighted Wilkins Micawber. He always wanted to meet his obligations by "drift," and to have "business," or the course of events, or the general progress of society, solve the various financial puzzles which vexed his life.

After considerable discussion the Lower House of the Virginia Legislature has passed resolutions inviting the State creditors, both foreign and American, to a conference at Richmond, on January

22, to settle the debt question. The project to hold the conference has been much opposed by some delegates on account of a belief that the burden of the debt was more than the State could bear, and that no settlement could be brought about with the creditors which would be sufficiently advantageous to make it worth while to keep up the credit of the Commonwealth. The auditor, however, makes a statement which disposes of this difficulty. The present rate of taxation is capable of yielding a revenue sufficient to pay four per centum on the public debt proper, if the present assessment on property can be maintained. No diminution is expected in the value of personal property, but in 1880 a general reassessment of real estate will take place, when a falling off in value of from twenty to twenty-five per centum is possible. In that case another source must be found for the required revenue. The Moffett Liquor Law, if properly enforced, would yield over \$300,000 more than it has yet done, and the deficiency would thus be amply made up. As the principal creditors have shown a disposition to be satisfied with an interest of four per centum, everything now points to an amicable settlement, unless the "readjusters," who are opposed to paying more than three per centum, have strength enough to interfere.

The annual message of Governor Robinson is always refreshing reading, because it has two qualities not too common in political papers: it is marked by a spirit of truthfulness and it is very outspoken. He gives an encouraging picture of the State finances; shows that the State tax has been reduced since 1874 from over \$15,000,000 to less than \$8,000,000, that there is no longer any General Fund debt, any bounty debt, or any floating debt, and that there is good reason to hope, now that resumption is accomplished, for a period of general prosperity. With regard to the canals and the prisons, the facts presented by his message are a striking proof (though he says little on this point) of the success in the reformed system of managing the public works introduced by Mr. Tilden's constitutional amendments. There is a decrease in the expenses of operating the canals since last year of over \$300,000 and an increase of about \$250,000 in the net income. The total payments on account of canals (excluding the principal and interest of the canal debt) were in 1874 \$3,842,892 35, in 1878, \$903,347 02. The State prisons are advancing on the same road, the annual deficiency having been reduced from \$704,379 85 in 1876 to \$229,971 83 in 1878, and the prison at Sing Sing, which, when the Superintendent took charge of it, was in the worst condition of all, being now more than self-supporting. Some of the other public institutions of the State, it seems, might with advantage be brought under the same management, particularly the Inebriate Asylum, which the Governor says is a "complete failure." There being no compulsory confinement there, and consequently no patients who go there except voluntarily, the asylum has become "a hotel for the entertainment of wealthy inebriates," who "remain there so long as they find it pleasant and agreeable," and no longer. With regard to education, the Governor is opposed to the taxation of the public at large for the support of high-schools and colleges, as he is also opposed to the new Code and to the new Capitol, which he says will cost \$20,000,000. He denounces the refusal of the Legislature to reapportion the State, and the interference of the Federal Government in the guise of "Johnny Davenport" in elections. With regard to the influence of the new Capitol upon the Legislature, he expresses the hope that the beauty of the architecture may improve its moral tone, and declares that if no such effects appear, and the vices of bribery and corruption shall "soil the new chambers," as he intimates they "too often marked the legislation of the old building," the people will have cause to regret its erection, and "to wish that the earth might open and swallow it up."

The proceedings against the County officers have made further progress during the past week. One of Mr. Gumbleton's objections to showing his books to the Committee of the Bar Association



was that they did not make the request simply as citizens wishing to see books, but as members of a self-constituted investigating body. It is difficult to know exactly what the distinction is, but to remove all pretext for this ground being taken, one of the members of the Committee has now, as a citizen, called upon Mr. Gumbleton to show his books, and Mr. Gumbleton has refused. His refusal, it is supposed, may lay the foundation for new proceedings. The scandalous character of the County Clerk's behavior is heightened by the fact that he was, before his accession to his present office, for a long time Deputy County Clerk, and has been throughout thoroughly familiar with the duties of the position. The Register, Mr. Loew, has replied to the charges preferred against him, and the Governor now has the case under consideration. His defence is generally that on taking office he was unfamiliar with the legal scale of charges, that he consequently directed his deputy to make the "proper" charges; that he always supposed the scale fixed was legal, that he never heard any complaints until September, 1878, when, before any investigation was begun, he immediately examined the law, and directed that no other than strictly legal fees be charged.

The second week of specie payments by the U. S. Treasury passed even more quietly than the first, and the Treasury continues to be the gainer rather than the loser of gold by resumption. Now that the Treasury is paying such of its demand debt, made legal tender, as is presented for payment, there is a great rush for its long-time debts, and the sales of 4 per cent. bonds continue enormous. One bank, the First National, has subscribed for \$25,000,000 since the new year came in, and another New York bank, the Continental National, has taken \$15,000,000. Altogether the banks have taken between \$70,000,000 and \$80,000,000 of these bonds, and the Treasury in less than two weeks has been able to notify the holders of \$70,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cent. bonds that it will redeem them out of the proceeds of sales of 4 per cents. This extraordinary rapidity of refunding was unexpected even by the most sanguine, and the holders of bonds as remote in the order of redemption as the 10-40s have been selling them on the theory that they will be redeemed within two years. It is something gained that the annual interest charge should be reduced one-third on so important a part of the public debt. Nevertheless, the rapidity of refunding is regarded as not altogether assuring in another respect, which is the effect on the foreign exchanges. It is estimated that of the 5-20 6 per cents there still remain in Europe not far from \$50,000,000, and these must, of course, be returned here if notified for redemption. None of the 4 per cents. are sold in Europe, and, accordingly, the demand for bills on London is largely increased. This demand, accompanied with a scarcity of commercial drafts in the market, has advanced the rates of sterling during the week to within one point of that which draws gold from here. Although the Treasury could stand a considerable drain of gold, all concede that in the early months of specie payments such a drain would be most unfortunate. At the New York Stock Exchange it has been a week of activity in railroad investments and of buoyancy in railroad stocks subject to speculation, and the money market was easier than for many years. Silver in London advanced from 49½d. to 49¾d. and 49¾d. per ounce. At the close of the week the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar, which had been \$0.8353, was \$0.8391.

The news from England is still a dismal story of decreasing trade, of unsuccessful strikes, of severe and increasing distress, and of terrible storms, with an inevitable decline of interest in the "imperial policy" and in all foreign questions. The omission of all mention of the suffering at home in the royal speech at the opening of Parliament, followed by the astounding proposal to vote money for the relief of the Turkish refugees in the Rhodope district, has infused fresh bitterness into the growing hostility to the Jingo Cabinet. It makes people feel as if they were as crazy about the Turks as they have shown themselves to be

about the Russians. We were mistaken a fortnight ago in saying that a Liberal had succeeded a Tory at Bristol. What happened was the election of a Liberal by a much increased majority, with a corresponding decline in the Conservative vote. In Afghanistan the invaders are having it all their own way, barring some trouble with the mountain tribes, who do not like being invaded and are severely chastised for their discontent. A charge of Panjab cavalry killed three hundred of them the other day, the Bishop of Gloucester will be glad to hear, as, according to him, it will help "the advance of the gospel" in India. Candahar has been occupied without resistance, and Yakub Khan is in full possession of what there is left of Afghan government. The *Herald* reports that his father has been invited to Tashkend by General Kaufmann.

The news from Germany seems to show that Prince Bismarck is losing his head a little and drifting back into the condition of Junkerism and hostility to middle-class sentiment which he occupied before 1866. He has spread consternation among the German Liberals by publishing the outlines of a bill which he proposes to introduce at the coming session of the Parliament, making words spoken in debate triable and punishable by a Commission composed of two vice-presidents and ten members of the Reichstag, who would meet at the order of the President or on motion of twenty members. A member convicted by this tribunal of using improper language would be liable to public reproof or to be called on for a public apology or to be suspended, and if the suspension were for an entire term, to be made ineligible for re-election, and these penalties would not preclude prosecution before the ordinary courts. The object of it is to prevent the Socialists using speeches in Parliament, as they did last session, for the dissemination of sentiments which they did not dare to utter out of doors, but in practice it would, of course, make all freedom of debate dependent on the President and the Commission. Strange to say, the prevailing opinion seems to be that the bill will pass, so great is the Socialist panic and so thoroughly is Bismarck still master of the situation, in spite of the strong condemnation of the Liberal press. The police are enforcing the Anti-Socialist Act with great rigor, and especially that most terrible feature of it—the power of arbitrary banishment.

The Federal Council of the German Empire has appointed a special commission to revise the tariff, and Prince Bismarck has seized the opportunity to express his own views on the course which should be pursued. In his letter to the Commission he insists strongly on the advantages of indirect over direct taxes. Throughout a great part of Germany the direct taxes almost amount to confiscation, and the middle classes, composed chiefly of persons living on small and fixed incomes, are assessed, he says, beyond their strength. Direct taxes, too, are always the most disagreeable to the payer. A fixed amount paid by each individual, and collected if necessary by force, is far harder to bear than an indirect tax which depends in amount on the economy of the individual, and which is contained in the price of articles consumed. In considering the revision of the tariff, the Chancellor urges a return to the principles of protection. He wishes all articles brought into Germany to be liable to duties, except raw material required for home manufactures. He does not consider the question whether a system of free-trade, if universal, would redound to the advantage of Germany; but seeing that other nations have not adopted that system, and still surround themselves with a barrier of tariff laws, he thinks that Germany will best consult her interests by doing the same. The Chancellor's protectionist opinions are not new, though they seem to have gained much strength since his failure to induce Russia to modify her tariff in favor of Germany. Nor does he shine as a political economist; he probably cares little about either free-trade or protection, but he wants more money for the Federal treasury, and, since his defeat on the tobacco monopoly, despairs of getting it through direct taxes.

## THE BURNSIDE ARMY BILL.

THE bill to reduce and reorganize the Army, lately introduced by the Joint Committee constituted last session to harmonize the conflicting views of the Senate and House of Representatives, is alarming in size as well as in some of its contents. It contains 724 sections, some of them with many numbered clauses, and fills 294 pages of royal octavo, being, as printed, about the bulk of an average volume of Statutes-at-large, comprising the whole national legislation for a long session. The concluding paragraph expressly repeals over two hundred sections of the Revised Statutes relating to a great branch of administration, the growth of a century. What the Committee offers in place of them will disappoint the ultra-economists who clamor for a material reduction of the Army, as its effect is by no means so marked in that direction as in its radical change of authority, division, and arrangement.

The two comprehensive reductions, each of them professedly final, that have been made in the regular Army since the civil war have fallen chiefly upon the line, leaving the staff comparatively intact, and it is contended that the latter has become disproportionately large. While there is some truth in the argument, so far as it applies to a common share of the personal hardship rendered necessary by economy, it must be remembered that the more important staff corps are not employed for the administration of the Army alone, but for the military establishment of the whole country, as well as for some of its most material interests. The legitimate work of the Engineer Corps would be about the same if the enlisted force of the Army were one-tenth or ten times its present number. The Ordnance Corps provides for the general national defence, only about one-sixth of its duty being in reference to the Army proper, the remainder concerning fortifications, State militia, and the preparation and care of the best material of war to meet the emergencies in which Government would otherwise be unarmed or at the mercy of swindling contractors. Constant efficiency in the Quartermaster and Commissary Departments also requires experienced officers to permit the sudden expansion of an army beyond the peace establishment; and their minimum strength, as well as that of the Medical Corps, even in the most profound peace, should be calculated not by the number, but the distribution, of the troops. A very large army stationed compactly in a small territory needs few staff officers compared with a small army scattered in multiplied subdivisions over an immense area.

The object of a military organization, however, is not simply defence or attack, but also the cultivation of military science. If there were absolutely no enlisted men, it would still be desirable to train officers, as in the German *Kriegspiel*, with wooden puppets and tin cannon; but live men and real arms are more useful. Nor is the discipline of troops by any means the whole lesson to be learned, their supply and maintenance being of at least equal consequence; and a trained staff, with judicious differentiation, is as important as are commanders versed in tactics and strategy. These facts are not wholly disregarded in the bill, which indeed but slightly reduces the numerical strength of the staff as a whole, but it does not preserve the essential feature of scientific selection and specialization. When civil-service reform is advocated through the success of the prevailing military principle by which faithful and trained officers are retained for life in their several specialties, it is surprising that the model itself should be so imperfect that, for one instance only, thirty-nine ordnance officers are to be cut off for no apparent reason except that thirty artillery officers should take their places, thus injuring both those branches of the service, while inflicting needless hardship upon the more scientific one.

The fundamental idea of the reorganizing sections of the bill is that every major, captain, and lieutenant who may be in favor is as fit for every kind of duty as any other officer of the same grade, and that staff duty is simply a privilege to be enjoyed in rotation, much as the other customary privilege of leaves-of-absence. The better results of the German system of inter-convertibility of line and staff are not secured, though it is provided

that details from the line are to act as staff officers for certain periods, while many of the trained and experienced staff are turned out of the Army altogether or mixed in the line, where the special talents for which they were selected, and their experience gained, would be lost. In the actual working of the proposed inter-convertibility it will probably be found that the whole personnel of the officers of the Army will be shuffled together as if for "a new deal"; and even if there be not already a pre-arrangement of desirable offices by an army ring, to which the activity of the military lobby at this moment gives an air of probability, yet in the scramble there will be opportunities for both favoritism and malice on a great scale, never contemplated when the present definite commissions were accepted under the contract of law and established custom.

If it is determined to reduce the number of officers, the staff should bear its proportion of hardship, but no more, and not be disorganized to the injury of the service for the benefit of the line. If Congress decide upon any percentage of reduction, let it be impartially applied to all grades of all departments, corps, and arms. The true plan, which will not inflict injustice, is to open the retired list for officers of extreme age and those physically disabled, to offer a fair gratuity for voluntary resignation, and to stop all appointments and promotions to all grades until the established maximum in each shall be reached by casualty. This simple process will accomplish the object in two or three years, with easy adjustment and only such suffering as, being common to all in commission, would be cheerfully endured.

Turning to the features of the bill which have a public rather than a professional interest, we find the most important to be those affecting the relative powers of the constitutional Commander-in-Chief and his proper representative, the Secretary of War. In all well organized free governments the military power and resources of the state are, as a rule, held in strict control by civil authority, in the shape of a ministry of war. The chief magistrate, under the restrictions of or in union with a co-ordinate branch of the government, appoints and commissions officers, and through his war-minister assigns them to proper duties. The military forces are commanded by officers assigned to and relieved from duty by the Administration at its discretion, and act under instructions from the War Office, being empowered by articles of war adopted by the legislature to enforce obedience and discipline among their subordinates. This system is maintained not only in time of peace, but in all wars in which disasters do not compel a resort to desperate courses, such as the establishment of a dictatorship.

The bill we are discussing, however, greatly increases the power of an office now unknown to law, styled "the Commanding General," and diminishes the control of the Administration not only over the military forces but over the national military establishment and resources. It vests originally in this General powers now simply delegated to the General of the Army (or the general who may be in command) by the President under his proper authority, and which might under the same authority be resumed; the only check left to the executive being in a new assignment as Commanding General out of the small number of general officers in order to find, if possible, one to execute his orders. Even if the serious and unusual experiment should be tried of placing a junior officer in command, it might well be that the President would gain nothing by the change, as all the eleven (to be reduced to six) generals in commission might hold the same views of policy or politics. The possibility of such a combination is foreshadowed by the concerted action of several of those officers in regard to the pending bill. The section (75) which defines the functions of the Secretary of War is carefully drawn so as to present the show of retaining legal authority in his office, by the words "shall exercise supervision and control," etc. The succeeding section, however, gives the General of the Army "command of the entire army, line and staff"; and by numerous other sections the nebulous "supervision and control" in the one declaratory section are both in spirit and in terms essentially modified by the specific provisions for "command" by the General.

Some of these may be mentioned. Section 82 requires all orders



relating to military operations, stations, movements of troops, etc., whether originating with the Commanding General or directed by the President or Secretary of War, to be issued from the headquarters of the army. There is an historic example of the operation of a similar law at the time when John was President and Grant General of the Army. The latter was expected by the majority in Congress that passed the law for that purpose to defy, and did defy, the constitutional power of the Commander-in-Chief, as did the local military commander at Washington, and they were both sheltered by the act of Congress, the President being powerless. The constitutionality of that act has always been questioned, and, the party occasion having passed by, it was repealed. Though some politicians may have justified the temporary expedient to restrict the power of President Johnson at a particular crisis, few will knowingly advocate a permanent statutory permission to all Commanding Generals to disobey all Presidents. Section 83 is the complement of its predecessor, providing in effect that all correspondence from subordinates shall pass through the hands of the Commanding General before reaching the President and Secretary of War, thus enabling him by suppression or misrepresentation to leave them in any degree of desired ignorance as to the true situation of affairs, and so securing the permanence of the power before gained.

Section 120 requires that all details for duty in the staff shall be made by the President from nominations submitted by the Commanding General. The Secretary of War is ignored, and the Commander-in-Chief is confined by law to the choice of such officers as may be selected by his subordinate. When it is observed that all disbursements are made and all the civil functions of the War Department performed by the staff, some idea may be formed of the power over civil and administrative affairs placed in the military commander through the selection of his favorites in the first instance, and the "command" of them ever afterward.

Section 129 allows the Commanding General to assign "temporarily" commanders to the geographical divisions and departments in the absence or disability of those designated by the President. He can order any commander to Washington or elsewhere on some pretext and then assign a successor of his own choice "temporarily," and extend the absence of the former commander indefinitely, so as to obtain direct power over all departments and divisions—that is, the whole territory of the United States. These commands have political significance and aid the civil policy of the Administration, which hitherto has designated such officers to them as would co-operate with its wishes, whether concerning hostile Indians, bordering nationalities, or other sources of disturbance. If the General and President should differ in their views of public policy, as has happened, the former could thwart the views of the latter at an important crisis. This section should be collated with Section 84, which makes the geographical departments and divisions embrace all officers and troops, regular, volunteer, and militia, within their respective bounds, thus giving absolute control of all fortifications, arsenals, depots, and material of national defence and offence, including vast amounts of money and property, to the General and his possible selections.

Section 206 entrusts the Commanding General with the direction of the recruiting service; he should command the army, but not raise it. When there is a large amount of recruiting—raising questions of State rights, drafts, bounties, quotas of militia and volunteers, and other grave matters of administration—the subject is surely in the exclusive province of the political officer, and the anomaly, if not danger, of entrusting it to a soldier perhaps inflamed by the passions of party conflict, is obvious.

A centralization of all powers in the Commanding General, less specific but similar to that now proposed, was once brought about only a few days after the present General of the Army attained that rank vacated by President Grant's election. Then, a general officer being Secretary of War, the same who is credited with drafting most of the present bill, a general order was issued embracing some of the prominent features of the bill; but when General Rawlins,

who was then a civilian, though thoroughly versed in military affairs, became Secretary the order was promptly revoked, the uncontradicted report at the time being that he informed the President that he would resign rather than be a mere clerk to the General of the Army, and that General Grant at once saw the vital errors in the order he had before inconsiderately sanctioned. Since that revocation some of the general officers have been astutely and persistently working for the acquisition of arbitrary command, and have to a large extent been checked in their attempts to impose upon the several Secretaries by the judicious and intelligent advice of the successive Judges Advocate-General. There seems to be a significant preparation for a struggle between "control" and "command" when Section 715 prohibits the Judge Advocate-General, or any other officer doing duty in the Bureau of Military Justice, from giving to the Secretary any legal advice touching his rights and duties. If the civilian Secretary should, in his temporary incumbency, attempt to defend the integrity of his office, he would, indeed, depending wholly upon the advice of the Attorney-General—another civilian, to whom military details are meaningless—fight a losing battle with the military chieftain whose subordinates alone would be allowed to surround the War Department.

#### THE REPUBLICAN BURDEN IN FRANCE.

THE Senatorial election in France, which has put the Government at last firmly in possession of the Republicans, has created great anxiety to know what they will do with their victory, and a speech delivered by M. Gambetta at a dinner given him by the Commercial Travellers in Paris has been eagerly perused with the view of discovering what the policy of the Government is to be. In this very speech, however, he reiterated his firm determination not to take office, and it is considered so important that he should not that it may be said without exaggeration that one of the most important points in the Republican programme is that Gambetta is not to have an office. The reason of this is that he has not quite outlived the reputation acquired during his dictatorship in the war for recklessness and impassioned partisanship. M. Thiers, in styling him in one of his speeches after the peace a "raging madman," probably expressed the feeling of seven-tenths of the French people about him. But there have been few cases in history of more rapid recovery from a certain kind of discredit. For the last seven years he has been steadily gaining in influence through the remarkable power of adaptation to circumstances, and of education through circumstances, which he has shown himself to possess. He occupies a position in French politics at this moment for which it would probably be difficult to recall any parallel, except (though *longo intervallo*) that of O'Connell in his best days in Ireland, and which is full of inconvenience. Indeed it may be said to constitute one of the difficulties of the Republic. He has obtained complete control of his party, and yet his party, though strong enough to take and carry on the Government, dare not give him office, so surely would the vast body of timid Conservatives whom the Republic has still to reassure regard his accession with a certain vague alarm. The first thing it has to say, therefore, on coming into power is, that Gambetta is not to be a member of the Government, and Gambetta has himself to repeat this; but in the next breath he gives what the whole country regards as an authoritative exposition of what the policy of the Government is to be. He is himself completely reconciled to his position by his youth—for he is only forty—and by the fact, to put the matter on the lowest ground, that to the career he undoubtedly expects to make the firm establishment of the Republic is essential.

The inconveniences of having the power lodged in hands which are not subjected to formal or regular responsibility are obvious enough. It, in the first place, in a greater or less degree discredits the Ministry. They wear in the public eye the air of being Gambetta's subordinates, or at all events of holding office by his permission, which of itself has a somewhat paralyzing effect. In the second place,

it destroys or weakens the public control over party policy in the Legislature, inasmuch as it surrounds every measure of importance with doubt as to the real authorship. Before the late election the Ministry derived a certain weight and authority from the fact that they seemed to form a sort of buffer between the Assembly and the Senate, or, at all events, an instrument by which the Senate could be induced to work harmoniously with the Assembly; but these the late election has destroyed. There is no longer any need of conciliating the Senate. It has come to pass that, to use our well-known phrase, Gambetta will now "run" the Senate as well as the Assembly; he does not any longer need the ministerial stamp to guarantee the safety of his plans. He, therefore, now talks with more authority than ever.

The speech at the Commercial Travellers' dinner, however, really announced nothing new except what may be considered a formal repudiation on behalf of the Republic of the old Rousseau idea of which the first Republic, and, indeed, that of 1848, was enamored, that it was possible to construct *à priori* a government which any nation could live under. An original French Republican scorned to construct a constitution for a particular nation; he made it for the human family, and the Chinaman and the Red Indian would be just as comfortable under it and could work it just as well as the Frenchman or Englishman. The desire to give other nations the advantage of it by force was a not unnatural consequence of the fanatical belief in its universal efficacy, and has hitherto shown itself prominently in all French Republican movements, in the form of a solemn recognition of what was called the "solidarity of the peoples." A spirit of propagandism was thus created which even the downfall of the Republic by no means extinguished. It survived in the various monarchical régimes, though expending itself on various objects. It imbued French politicians of all schools with the notion that France was responsible in a marked degree for the political condition of all the countries around her, and gave the conceit of "making war for an idea" an air of splendor, though the "idea" which was considered worth war varied greatly from decade to decade. M. Gambetta repudiates this propagandism with much earnestness. He says the business of Frenchmen is to found and maintain a government that will suit themselves; that they are not responsible for other people's governments, and will do well not to trouble their heads about them. But he acknowledges, in his happy, epigrammatic way, that though the period of "danger" for the Republic has passed away—that is, the period in which there was reason to fear that some other régime might be set up by force—the period of "difficulty" has come. By this he means that expectations will now be entertained about the Republic which have not been entertained previously because it was not in full possession of power, and that attempts will be made to realize these expectations by forcing the Government on new and dangerous paths. In other words, the Republicans will now be called on in a way they have never been called on before for a display of their conservative or resisting power.

The extreme Left already shows a disposition to bolt from the control of Gambetta and form an independent section. At a late meeting of the Republican Deputies in Paris M. Floquet called for a reorganization of the Cabinet, and M. Louis Blanc is said to be preparing an address on behalf of this wing of the party calling for a Government programme of a very extreme character. The danger of these schemes, and of all schemes concocted under these auspices, is that if they took effect on the Cabinet they might force or frighten Marshal MacMahon into resigning, and there would be considerable difficulty in finding a substitute for him. He is docile enough since his late defeat, up to a certain point, and commands the respect of the army and of the country for his military services, and furnishes what has been very useful to the Republic during the first year, a good figurehead for state ceremonies. It would be very hard to fill his place with any civilian in a manner satisfactory to the mass of the population. The tradition that the chief of the state must be a soldier, at least technically, as all kings are, is still very strong in France, and if an exception were made it would have to be in

favor of a civilian as distinguished and with as many holds on popular confidence as M. Thiers, and civilians of this kind are not easy to find; so that it is clearly the part of wisdom for the Republicans to keep the Marshal as long as they can. But they will doubtless be obliged to carry out the reforms among the judges and the higher military commanders which M. Dufaure has already half accepted, and of which the recently-announced resignation of General Borel, the Minister of War, is probably the first sign. Even the moderate Republicans will never be satisfied until the corps at least, if not the divisions, are commanded by their own men, and the more advanced are just as eager for what they call the purification of the judicial bench. This last is, however, a hazardous task. It cannot yet be said with absolute confidence that "the era of revolutions" is closed, and it would be a tremendous misfortune if the victors in the next convulsion were to find a precedent for looking on the judiciary as "spoils."

#### THE LAST INVASION OF AFGHANISTAN.

##### I.

THERE is hardly a more romantic chapter in modern history than the conquest of British India, as all readers of Macaulay's Essays know, and yet the romance did not cease with the firm establishment of the Company's dominion. The work of extending and organizing and defending it during the last fifty years has been filled with episodes almost as brilliant as Plassey and Assaye, and the arena has never been without soldiers whose career and exploits seem to belong rather to the wars of Roland than to those of Moltke. The overthrow of the Beloochees, the campaign in Afghanistan, the fight with the Sikhs, and the great Mutiny are crowded with incidents in which Froissart would have delighted, and which illustrate the wonderful fertility of resource, the dauntless courage, and the unconquerable determination which are brought out in men of the Anglo-Saxon race by adverse fortune, under strange skies. No decorations are so full of meaning as those bestowed for Indian campaigns; they tell the "tales of many a glorious hour—

"Of deeds in field or trench,  
Of crumbling fortress held  
When stoutest heart might blench  
And bravest hope be quell'd."

The Afghan war, begun in 1839, was one of the most striking of these episodes, and was, except in the tragic fate of the first army of invasion, an excellent illustration of Anglo-Indian political morality and capacity, and deserves far more attention than it has received for its remarkable resemblance, both in its origin and inception, to the contest now raging in that country. The whole story has filled many volumes of history and biography, but our present object is simply to sketch the two most striking incidents of the war, the retreat from Cabul and the defence of Jalalabad, so that we shall not attempt more than a mere outline of the situation which led to it.

In 1839 there was a sort of panic in India, not unlike the present one about the advance of the Russians in Central Asia, and the Persians were besieging Herat, the great fortress of Northern Afghanistan, it was believed under Russian instigation. The siege lasted some months and was watched with the keenest interest all over the East. The Persians were finally repulsed, after several desperate assaults, mainly owing to the exertions of a young Anglo-Indian officer, Eldred Pottinger, who had thrown himself into the place and superintended the Afghan resistance. The failure in no way quieted the fears of the Indian Government, however. Lord Auckland, a man of the Lord Lytton type, was then Governor-General, and during the siege he was up in the Himalayas at Simla, away from his older and steadier counsellors and under the influence of three comparatively young and very restless and ambitious members of the civil service, William MacNaghten, Henry Torrens, and John Colvin, who, to make a long story short, persuaded him that Dost Mohamed, the then Amir of Afghanistan and father of the present Shir Ali, was not to be depended on or controlled, and that the only way to make Afghanistan a barrier against Russian aggression was to put somebody on the throne of whose fidelity and subservience to British interests there could be no doubt. Such an instrument they found ready to their hands in the person of Shah Soojah, who had some years before been Amir, but had been expelled by a rising of the dominant faction of Afghan chiefs in the interest of Dost Mohamed, and was then living, old and feeble, as a refugee in British territory. They accordingly fished him out of his obscurity, acknowledged him as king,



made him enter into an alliance with the Sikhs, then ruling in the Punjab, and collected a force of about 15,000 men, 4,500 of them Europeans, to reinstate him at Cabul. Lord Auckland then issued a manifesto denouncing Dost Mohamed in much the same terms in which Lord Lytton now denounces Shir Ali, and declared that "so long as Cabul remained under his government we could never hope that the tranquillity of our neighborhood would be secured, or that the interests of our Indian Empire would be preserved inviolate." MacNaghten then was commissioned to accompany Shah Soojah as "envoy and minister on the part of the Government of India." The invasion began, to use the eloquent language of Kaye, the historian, "in defiance of every consideration of political and military expediency; and there were those who, arguing the matter on higher grounds than those of expediency, pronounced the certainty of its failure, because there was a canker of injustice at the core. It was indeed an experiment on the forbearance alike of God and of man; and therefore, though it might dawn in success and triumph, it was sure to set in failure and disgrace."

It did, indeed, like the present war "dawn in success and triumph." The march on Cabul was made not by the Khybar Pass, which was left to the Sikhs, but by Candahar, which was occupied without resistance, and on the 21st of July, 1839, the British force, under Sir John Keane, arrived before the fortress of Ghazni, ninety miles from Cabul, and met with the first serious opposition. The general had pushed on rapidly without waiting for his heavy artillery, and found the place so strong that it was useless to assail it with his six and nine pounders, and he resolved on carrying it by assault after blowing open one of the gates with gunpowder. This desperate enterprise was successfully carried out. The storming column rushed in at daybreak over the debris, and engaged at once in a hand-to-hand fight on the streets with the amazed Afghans. Dennie, one of the famous Indian officers who afterwards fell gloriously at Jalalabad, led the advance, supported by Sir Robert Sale, then a man of fifty-seven, who plunged into the mêlée with the eagerness of twenty-five. He had a narrow escape in a desperate encounter with a powerful Afghan, in which both combatants rolled over and over among the broken beams of the gate, before Sale, wounded as he was, got the upper hand and clove his enemy's skull. The struggle did not last long, however; the tulwar and the jezail, though backed by fierce fanaticism, were no match for the bayonets, the rolling fire, and the steady discipline of the British column, and the laughter of the defenders was great. Five hundred were buried by the victors, who lost seventeen killed and one hundred and sixty-five wounded. Dost Mohamed, on hearing the news, marched out from Cabul for a last effort in the open field; but his levies were raw and treacherous and disheartened; they went to pieces, and deserted him before they saw the enemy. He was a gallant soldier, and it is recorded that he made a touching appeal to the remnant of his cavalry to stand by him in one charge on the infidels, in which he could die with honor, and then they could make what terms they pleased with the invader. But it was all in vain. They not only disbanded but plundered his tent before going, and he turned his horse's head sorrowfully and fled towards the Hindoo-Koosh, the great mountain range.

Cabul was then occupied without resistance, but the inhabitants looked on the entrance of the new monarch with cold indifference, and MacNaghten was satisfied, before he was a month in the place, that his protégé, Shah Soojah, had no hold on the people under any circumstances, and that coming back as he was doing, under the protection of infidel guns, he was looked on as a detestable usurper; that the British troops could not be withdrawn as had been originally intended, and that they must occupy the country, and carry on the government in the Shah Soojah's name, but nevertheless through his officials, who were as corrupt and degraded as oriental officials usually are. The invading force was therefore cantoned in various places, a strong garrison being retained in Cabul. The whole was then under the command of Sir Willoughby Cotton, who had succeeded Sir John Keane; but when the prolonged occupation was determined on he retired on the ground of ill-health, and was in turn succeeded by General Elphinstone, whose appointment by Lord Auckland was the extraordinary feature of the expedition. Elphinstone was already an old man in infirm health, of but little Indian experience and no military fame, well born, a good dinner-out, and passionately fond of London society, which he had recently left, and was constantly recalling, with regret. He had apparently, until the last dreadful days, no sense whatever of the gravity of his situation. The troops settled down in their quarters, however, with considerable cheerfulness. The climate was bracing, and the country around beautiful and full of game. The officers brought on their wives and daughters from India, and took houses

in the city. The Afghans seemed to like their money, and were entertained by the hunting, shooting, and skating. That great discontent was abroad in the country was plain enough, but nobody considered it formidable. The chiefs were constantly rising here and there, but were easily put down. Dost Mohamed had raised a force of the Uzbek tribes up in the mountains, but had been defeated, and had in despair surrendered himself to the British envoy and been sent to India, where he lived on parole with a pension. The winter of 1840-41 was reasonably quiet, and General Elphinstone was enjoying his whist and telling his stories with such placidity that he took no precautions whatever for the safety of the force in Cabul. They were quartered in cantonments on low ground, with feeble or ruined defences, and were commanded on every side by hills, forts, and villages, and, to crown all, the supplies were stored in a small fort outside the lines, the communication with which could be easily swept by an enemy's fire. The occupation had reached the autumn of 1841 with things in this condition; but a cloud had arisen which, small as it seemed, had in the East a tempest in it. What had raised it we shall describe in Kaye's own words:

"I am not writing an apology. There are truths which must be spoken. The temptations which are most difficult to withstand were not withstood by our English officers. The attractions of the women of Cabul they did not know how to resist. The Afghans were very jealous of the honor of their women; and there were things done in Cabul which covered them with shame and roused them to revenge. The inmate of the Mohammedan zenana was not unwilling to visit the quarters of the Christian stranger. For two long years now this shame had been burning itself into the hearts of the Cabulees, and there were men of note and influence among them who knew themselves to be thus wronged. Complaints were made, but they were made in vain. The scandal was open, undisguised, and notorious. Redress was not to be obtained. The injured began to see that the remedy was in their own hands."

On the night of the 1st of November, 1841, a conspiracy for a rising in Cabul, which had been long on foot among the Afghan chiefs, was brought to a head, and the next day fixed for the outbreak, and it took place accordingly. A furious mob murdered some of the British officers, plundered the royal treasury, and, reinforced by armed crowds from the country districts, occupied the most commanding positions in and around the city. The garrison was taken completely by surprise, and General Elphinstone was so reduced by gout and rheumatism and old age that he was utterly bewildered. The insurrection was assailed by small parties of troops, who were repulsed and accomplished nothing. Fighting raged during the whole of the month with varied fortune, the British trying to hold the cantonments and the Bala Hissar, or citadel, on which the royal palace was situated, but short of artillery, ammunition, and provisions, losing men and courage in desultory frays, practically without a commander, and the surrounding country constantly pouring in fresh levies to attack them. Castles, villages, forts, and ditches swarmed with sharpshooters, who harassed them night and day. The losses were great, and by the first of December hope was gone, and negotiations were opened with the enemy for permission to withdraw to Jalalabad, then occupied by Sale at the other end of the Khoord Cabul Pass, on the road to Peshawar. The provisions were nearly exhausted and the troops utterly demoralized. Both Europeans and Sepoys ran away from the enemy without the slightest shame.

A convention was therefore concluded by MacNaghten with the Afghans, by which the whole country was to be evacuated, the Cabul garrison was to go to Peshawar, taking the king with them, and were to be supplied and safe-conducted on the road. But the negotiations took three weeks, during which the Afghans treated the British as conquered enemies, and inflicted on them the grossest insults. On the 18th of December the snow began to fall. On the 23d it was still questionable whether the force would be allowed to depart after all, so tricky and temporizing and insolent had the enemy become. On that day MacNaghten rode out, by appointment, for a final interview with Akhbar Khan, Dost Mohamed's son, and while debating the English party was suddenly surrounded, seized, and MacNaghten, resisting, was shot dead by Akhbar Khan himself, his body carried in triumph through the streets of the city, and hacked to pieces. Fresh negotiations were then opened and a new treaty signed by eighteen of the Afghan chiefs, under which the British literally surrendered at discretion. They agreed to pay a large sum as ransom, to give up their artillery, and to leave some of the ladies as hostages, and submitted all the while to humiliation of every kind. Finally, on the 6th of January, 1842, the march began, 4,000 fighting men and 12,000 camp-followers starting out in the deep snow. They made six miles before night, hundreds sinking under the cold, all discipline gone, and the whole force resolved into a confused and despairing mass. It

took them two days to reach the entrance of the Khoord Cabul Pass, a dark and gloomy ravine five miles long, ten miles from Cabul, and as soon as they entered it swarms of Afghans posted on the heights began an indiscriminate massacre, and killed 3,000 of them, and Akbar Khan carried off Lady Sale and her daughters, and several other ladies, with General Elphinstone, ostensibly for safe-keeping, but in reality as hostages. On the 10th of January the march was resumed and the massacre again begun. In the Jugdulluck Pass, a little further on, a barrier had been erected which they could not force, and here they were nearly all slaughtered. A few officers stood together and struggled on a few miles but were pursued and killed. One survivor—an army surgeon named Brydon, who only died last year—rode in, wounded, on a broken-down pony, to bring the awful news to Sir Robert Sale, who was holding Jala-labad with his brigade. What befell this little force we shall tell next week.

## THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XVI.

FRENCH AND ENGLISH HOUSE-FURNITURE

PARIS, September, 1878.

CURIOUS is the comparison between the French and the English work in house-decoration and house-furniture. If we consider the more rich and decorative displays, the two nations are as wide apart as the poles in their aims and tendencies. The first sight of the long alley of the *Paris Chénisteries* is not so strange as the general aspect of the British quarter, beyond the open streets and the art-galleries. The French work is what one expects. It is not novel in design; its extraordinary grace and delicacy, and the great cost and richness of many of the pieces, are not visible at first glance. The Londoners and their followers are not so old-fashioned. Something strange is going on in London; if your interest is excited by the odd look of the sideboards, and the wall-painting and tiles, you find it hard to explain to yourself what it is that is at the bottom of this general movement toward novelty of design, and a style of work such as is certainly not slavishly copied from any epoch of the past. There is something characteristic of the two nations, or, at least, of the more thoughtful part of the two nations, in their ornamental work in these branches. The Englishmen seem to have received a direct revelation, and in their unskilful way to be trying to obey it; they are intense and unanimous, they are all working alike with a definite object in view, and their designs are quaint and vigorous as are those of the creators of a new style, but not graceful, as a general thing, not refined into harmony—the work of clever youths rather than of mature minds. The Frenchmen have nothing to say to any novelties of design; they are as far as possible from any enthusiasm such as is excited by the possession of a newly-comprehended creed which must be fought for; they have no particular religion, but they get on wonderfully well without it. Their work is skilful and accomplished to a degree which no English workman can approach; their mastery of their material is wonderful; their grace, symmetry, elegance can only be hinted at, not fully explained. Detail, which the English workman never can manage, which bullies him, and obtrudes itself into his work like a spirit he has raised and cannot command, is for the Frenchman an obedient slave. The Frenchman's detail is a part of his design, and keeps its place; his rival's is a separate entity, and is not often taught to help in the general effect, as it should. In short, the French are the more trained and more skilful artists; but it is not necessary to state that truism very forcibly or very often—it will be admitted. What is strange is to see the vigor of the English in working out what may be a new artistic style, and, as such, an era in the history of art. It is sad to think that all the conditions are against any such result; that it is probably only a fashion that we see, and not a style—not because there is anything lacking in the thing itself, so far as developed, but that it is quite sure to be abandoned at a day's notice whenever the evil goddess, the *Até* of modern art, Fashion, may choose to give the signal. Styles develop naturally, one out of another; what we are looking at now in the British department is almost a style, having developed itself out of the Gothic revival, and in consequence of modern impatience with that in Gothic which it could not easily subdue to its needs. Fashions change by caprice and suddenly, with no deeper cause than the whim of some royal personage or some successful tradesman.

The difference between the French work and the English can be best explained if we begin with the former. This is almost wholly of one type; the French themselves are apt to say that it is all Louis XVI. today, but that is not quite correct. It is not Renaissance, for it is too

light and fantastic for that; not sufficiently grave, not sufficiently architectural and massive. It is not Louis XIV., but much more refined, having in it a sort of feminine grace unknown to that epoch. And yet it is not Louis XV. or Louis XVI. either, except in the light card-tables and slender chairs, and some of the silk-covered divans and lounges, which do rather smack of the boudoir and the salon of those dainty days. Some of the cabinets exhibited are of wonderful costliness and magnificence, and really seem to be worth their cost, and in these the prevailing style is to be described in some such words as these: The proportions and general character are French Renaissance; the detail more delicate, and evidently studied from Italian work of the same epoch. French sculpture in wood of the time of the Renaissance—that is, of the reigns of Francis I. and Henry II., and his sons; or for about three quarters of a century from the year 1515—is more generally in oak, and of a somewhat bold style and handling, as befits that noble material; it is, therefore, somewhat akin to the French stone-carving of the same period. But at that time the glory of the Renaissance was past in Italy, where it had begun earlier and moved faster; the materials at hand and the character of the people, too, in the peninsula affected the style of work there very much. Instead of bold work in sandstone, delicate sculpture in low relief in hard and fine marble was the chosen architectural decoration of the day; and in interior woodwork, inlays of wood and ivory, mosaic of hard stones, and sculpture as refined and subtle as the world has ever seen took the place of the bolder work of the north. Now, in this modern Parisian work these two methods are combined to a certain extent. The cabinet exhibited by M. Guéret, entirely in boxwood, is an instance of this tendency. The design is French and in its purity and simplicity of form it is rather of the time of Henry II. than later; though, of course, at all times there have been elaborate cabinets designed in this severe fashion, carefully classic and according to Vignola. But the sculpture certainly would not have been what it is but for the existence in Italy of the exquisite carved panels and mouldings of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It is all in the pale-yellow wood, in very slight relief, and most admirably executed, erring perhaps on the side of minute finish, as if of a small casket of ivory or bronze, but in perfect harmony with the general design. This is by no means as costly a piece as some; eighteen thousand francs is the price put upon it. A cabinet exhibited by M. Jules Allard has the panels in boxwood, but the frame in solid ebony—not “ebonized” cherry or maple, but the much more beautiful native wood, which is not jet black, but has lovely tints and half-seen gradations in its blackness. In this piece the sculpture takes great prominence, as there are statuettes in each of the two woods, the yellow and the black, and there is endless variety of design in the carved decoration; among the capitals of the little pilasters, the rosettes, and sculptured mouldings there are no two to be found alike. This is a remarkably successful instance of very rich and elaborate work retaining good taste and a general effect of simplicity and reserve.

In these pieces, and in pretty much the whole immense display of rich French furniture, this modern classic taste rules unquestioned. The style of the Renaissance and the epochs following that one are alone seriously considered. The influence of Gothic art, of Byzantine art, of the East in any of its varied artistic forms, is hardly to be detected in the more splendid pieces. The French designers are working just as they worked in the time of the first Empire; modern eclecticism has influenced them no farther than this, that they are more careful of the purity of style, and mix their details and “motifs” less; modern critical taste has influenced them only in this, that they are better paid, more honored and respected, and, therefore, chosen from a higher class and possessors of more cultivation and knowledge. No French designer dreams of an “Exhibition piece” in any but one of the modern-classic styles, nor have any of his predecessors for three hundred years, except here and there a bold experimentalist who knows, as he works at what he fancies Gothic or what he calls Chinese, that he is off the track, and that all the world will think so and treat his work as a mere vagary.

The work of the English designers for the past fifty years has been carried on under very different influences. In the first place, it is clear that at no time, from the death of Gothic architecture under Henry VIII. to the attempted revival of it—shall we say by Beekford and Horace Walpole?—under George III. was there any such absolute agreement as to the only possible style of decoration as there has always been in France. If we contrast Elizabethan art with the “*Style Henri Deux*,” from which it sprang, or Jacobean art with “*Louis Treize*,” or the now popular Queen-Anne style with “*Louis Quatorze*,” it will at once be seen how complete is the difference—how regular and systematic is the one.



how independent and even capricious is the other. It is one of the most curious studies possible, the absolute inability or unwillingness of the English designers to follow, like docile pupils, the classical styles of the Continent, to which any one of them would have avowed his complete adhesion; and, with this, the steady and disciplined march of the French. But for the past forty years this English community, already individual even to excess, and deprived, for evil as well as for good, of an universally recognized standard of design, has been assailed by the most varied influences. The Gothic revival divided at one time all England, and about evenly, with the classical revival in the hands of Sir Charles Barry and others of like mind with him. But, also, as the details and the free use of color of Italian Gothic were brought in to help the native English Gothic, so Italian Renaissance came in through the study of the early painters, and of Majolica and stuffs of the time. Oriental ornament could not be disregarded, whether it were Moorsque, borrowed at second hand from Spain, or true Arabic from Cairo, and, more recently, the wonderful charm of Japanese art began to be felt. All these influences existed for the French as well, but they were not felt in France as in England. For, see the result. In the British division of the long gallery of "Mobilier et Accessoires" there are few indications of purely classical feeling. Elkington's silverware is more nearly classic than any of the woodwork or decorative painting, except for here and there a separate piece. All the work is of one sort; you can see it in Du Maurier's woodcuts in *Punch*, you can feel it in Walter Crane's charming designs, you have it in New York at one cabinet-maker's shop, at least, to the exclusion of all other styles, and at all the furniture-stores you see traces of it. Cool colors, half tints, sage-green, with oriental blues which are almost greens and greens which are almost blues; much use of floral ornament painted in flat tints or slightly relieved with gradation, and firmly outlined; much use of small-scale figure-design, the costumes those of the last century, at least in form, the colors brought into the general system as stated above; gold backgrounds and gold outlines very frequent; the influence of Japanese decorative work in color very general, although some of the best designers seem to be trying to resist it—these are some of the characteristics of the wall-painting which is now in the ascendant. Wall-papers are much used, and are designed upon the same principles; in fact, wall-papers should be considered as a mere variety of wall-painting, fitted for inexpensive and unpretending interiors. Tiles are used for decoration to a very great extent, and in boundless variety; but of this hereafter. The larger pieces of furniture are designed in a style which seems to be half way between modern Gothic and "Queen Anne." It is a style not to be despised on account of its mongrel parentage. The work of the better English furniture-designers for the past twenty years has been a not unsuccessful seeking after convenience and fitness for modern uses, while preserving something of the character of mediæval work; their adoption or partial adoption of the Queen-Anne fashion or taste has been in a great measure in deference to practical utility; and the result is that the sideboards and chimney-pieces of to-day, which may almost be described as of Sir Charles Grandison's time but with details of Chaucer's time, are very convenient, very appropriate to their places and purposes, very domestic-looking, yet not lacking in a certain magnificence. The French have noticed this peculiar domesticity of the English house-fittings: they think it a characteristic of the people, and trace its analogies in the British pictures with their quiet scenes of home-life and meetings by stiles and under garden trees.

It is to be observed that these tendencies of modern English art toward subdued color, unarchitectural form, and a generally simple and domestic as opposed to a grandiose and palace-like treatment of their interiors, cannot be traced direct to any one origin. Japanese design and Japanese feeling have helped in this, for it is a very prominent trait of Japanese art that it ignores stateliness, and lavishes its lovely detail on the simplest objects; moreover, Japanese design is never balanced and formal, and that can hardly be dignified and stately in European eyes which is not balanced and formal. The lack of great magnificence in the public buildings of England as compared with those of France; the fact that the Halls and Manors of Queen Anne are less stately than the Châteaux of Louis XIV., and that by a great deal; the comparatively domestic character of the architecture and appointments of the palaces of Great Britain as compared with Versailles or St.-Germain or Fontainebleau, all these have helped in determining the character of the new style. These questions of its origin, however, though interesting, are not important in determining the question of the value of the style itself. We find it now, in 1878, well understood and recognized as the ruling taste, a standard common to nearly all British designers.

This being so, great things might be expected from the English decorators, for it is an axiom in art that there must be an agreement of many men—of a whole community—as to methods of work and recognized aims, in order to bring out the best powers of each designer and to produce the best general result. And if this goes on long enough—this common consent, this working together in a style of their own creating—better things may be looked for than this century has seen in Europe. The style has the "defects of its virtues," of course; if it is simple and domestic, as is right, it is also clumsy, beyond experience. These rationally-designed sideboards are not to be compared for grace of form and harmony of proportions to the French cabinets, and the misunderstood naturalism of their detail is far inferior in value as ornament to the delicate classic patterns of the Parisians. There is, too, an incomprehensible diversity in this work. Their wall-painting and wall-papers and much of their decorative glass are so good, why do they paint pottery so badly? Why are the British earthenware and porcelain tiles generally so bad? Why are the French tiles generally so effective? The reason seems to me to be this: the English school has not yet gained such mastery over its chosen style of decoration as it fancies. In the boldest way it is seeking to cover ceramic-ware mantels, dados, door-pieces with figure-subjects of a complex character; no other nation, in the heyday of its life and the fullest development of its art, has dared to do so much. The human figure, both nude and clothed, animals, plants, landscape effects—anything that can be painted with the brush—is spread over these earthenware surfaces, and fired, in the full confidence that variety and spirit will make up for all deficiencies. But the fact is that there are only a few painters of such things in England who have knowledge and power enough for these elaborate and original designs. The French, with a vastly larger number of strong and highly-taught designers, fully competent to put upon ceramic ware anything that the ungrateful material will receive, are yet much more timid. They have no new style of work they are developing; they give us tile compositions in the Moorish style, in the Persian style, and are at peace. Now and then an immense landscape is painted on a surface made up of small tiles, but this is painted on exactly the same principles as a painting on canvas, and pretends to no decorative, as opposed to pictorial, character. Moreover, the French painters of landscape and figure are immeasurably more attentive to the decorative effect of a canvas than the English. It is their virtue, and, from some points of view, their failing, to care little for subject as compared with artistic effect. So that it is not a great effort for a French artist of ability and training to paint a huge landscape on three hundred square tiles, or a hunting piece on six hundred, and preserve a purely ornamental treatment.

I hope, in the next letter, to point out the workings of the same influences in other things, more particularly in silverware and glass. R. S.

## Correspondence.

### STEEL RAILS ON THE UNION PACIFIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the notes of the week in the last issue of the *Nation* I notice the following statement, alleged to be taken from the recent report of the Union Pacific Government directors: "Only 29 out of 1,026 miles of the iron rails have been replaced by steel." A similar statement, I understand, was telegraphed to the Associated Press. The blunder may not be so obvious as to be unworthy of correction. I will therefore say that the mileage of steel rail really reported by the Government directors was 290, instead of 29. This, however, was in round numbers. To be exactly accurate, taking the return made to the Government directors from the office of the general superintendent of the road, on November 14, the "amount of steel in track and that ready to go in before year closes [was] 283 miles," laid as follows: "1870, 2 miles; 1874, 12 miles; 1875, 18 miles; 1876, 30 miles; 1877, 130 miles; 1878, 91 miles."

As few of those who have seen the summary will read the original report, you will do an act of justice to the Union Pacific and oblige the Government directors by publishing this correction.

C. F. ADAMS, JR.,

Boston, Jan. 15, 1879.

### TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "B."s assumption that trade is a barter of merchandise is true only if the term "merchandise" is meant to include

evidences of indebtedness; otherwise the logical consequence would be that no nation could for any considerable length of time export merchandise to a greater value than its imports, or, in other words, that the balance of trade could not long remain in favor of the same nation, a proposition which the history of England's commerce shows to be untenable.

Our exports to South America—which, by the way, are not sold at ruinously low prices, but yield a fair profit to the manufacturer—will be paid for, as “B.” observes, in bills of exchange drawn on Europe; but the kind of merchandise which he seems to ignore, and which we can afford to import in large quantities in payment for those bills, will be the certificates of our indebtedness, United States, State, and railroad bonds, etc., now held abroad; or, if preferred, we can be paid in consols, rentes, and similar foreign “merchandise.”

The conditions of society which make actual barter necessary exist at present only in some of the interior countries of Africa, and in the minds of certain political economists.

Yours respectfully,

H. S.

Boston, January 13, 1879.

[England is hardly the kind of illustration our correspondent needs, because she is not only a great manufacturing nation but a great investor of spare capital in foreign countries, which the United States is not. Moreover, there is no likelihood of any sensible demand here for consols and rentes, or other foreign securities bringing low rates of interest. The current rates of interest to be had here on perfectly safe security forbid and will forbid it. It is extremely probable, too, that after the revival of business our own bonds instead of flowing home will again begin to flow abroad, for the simple reason that comparatively few Americans will be content with four or five per cent. when they can, with peace of mind, get seven or eight. The domestic demand for our bonds at present is almost certainly abnormal and transient.—ED. NATION.]

#### BISHOP FRASER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The mistake made by the *Nation* in quoting the Bishop of Manchester's position on the Afghan question, in the number of January 9, seems more like a slip of the editor's pen than a compositor's error. Feeling a good deal as you say the Liberals among English Churchmen do on this matter, it seems to me you almost owe to the bishop the reparation of quoting the words of his letter to the *Spectator*:

“But for an attack of bronchitis . . . I should have felt it my duty to place myself by the side of the Bishop of Oxford, . . . so that he might not have seemed to ‘stand alone’ among the bishops in his judgment of a policy the motives of which I yet fail to understand, and the morality of which—if morality is still in any measure to regulate the intercourse of nations—I cannot approve. . . . As a bishop of the Church of England I would not be thought indifferent, as by my absence from the division I might be thought, in a case where ‘the path of truth and justice’ is at least as much deserving of regard as the necessity, assumed by the *Times*, that, *per fas aut nefas*, ‘we must make ourselves secure.’”

Very respectfully, etc.,

AN AMERICAN CHURCHMAN.

[We have, as might have been expected, received several letters on this subject. The error was a proof-reader's oversight in letting “ministry” pass for “minority.”—ED. NATION.]

#### THE PROPOSED YORK-ANTWERP RULES ON GENERAL AVERAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having noted the evident reluctance with which you have hitherto admitted into your valuable paper communications which even partake of a controversial nature, far more those of a *personal* character, I read with great astonishment the letter addressed to you by Mr. Gustav Schwab upon the subject named at the head of this. It seemed to me a little singular that after this matter had been three times brought before the Chamber of Commerce, twice discussed in public at length, a special meeting called for the purpose, and the fullest opportunity given for every one to be heard, this gentleman should have reserved all his arguments and thunderbolts to be circulated through your medium instead of advancing them in their proper place and time, where their weight, if they had any, might have been used in influencing action which he now

deprecates, and the poor chairman of the majority have been spared the vials of his wrath. The real pain which I experience in being so completely misunderstood and misrepresented by so respected a gentleman is modified by the evidence which his communication furnishes that he has utterly failed to grasp the subject on which he writes (which is not to be wondered at), and, dissatisfied with his own reasonings, has been driven into that *dernier ressort* of arguers—personalities. Feeling quite sure of my own position and motives, I shall not be driven to the same weapons. The reports of the proceedings of the Chamber of Commerce being very meagre as given by the daily papers, the communication you have published is calculated to convey a very erroneous impression both of the report of the committee and the action of the Chamber; and as your paper circulates amongst and influences the highest intellectual class of our nation, I should feel that the work of the committee was very imperfect were we to suffer it to pass unnoticed.

Briefly, then, this entire question arises from one branch of those International Conferences inaugurated about twenty years ago, under the management at that time of Lord Brougham. Among the subjects deemed worthy of consideration was that of “General Average,” or those broad rules governing the extraordinary expenditures and sacrifices which vessels are often compelled to make by reason of threatening destruction or disaster on their voyages upon the seas. These rules were found to vary in different countries. In Great Britain, the first country to which we naturally look, a characteristic tenacity to existing customs had produced a strange anomaly. Arbitrary *practice* had assumed the place of *principle*; and whilst text-writers repeatedly declared what *should be* the proper mode of adjustment, the adjusters had persisted in maintaining practices in direct opposition to such views. The same feelings had studiously withheld and prevented appeals to the legal tribunals on points not specifically ruled upon, and their entire code of practice was pronounced by their own elementary writers crude and inconsistent. In France and many other countries influenced by her great ruler, the Code Napoléon in its brief, terse terms swept away all previously existing laws, and arbitrarily established a new order of things; but here, as with all new legislation, constant appeals to the courts had been necessary in order to define correctly the meaning and intention of the Code, and in adhering to the literal wording of the text many decisions had been given which in their application seemed to exceed the true principles sought to be established by the originators of that remarkable system of laws. In most of the other Continental Governments and in America, some, and in fact most, of the practice was found in accord. In distant and comparatively limited commercial countries there existed many obsolete, incongruous, and objectionable practices.

A separate branch of the Conferences was established on this subject, and delegates thereto were invited from the various commercial countries. Our Chamber of Commerce courteously responded to this invitation, and our first delegate to that first regularly organized body of this branch of international subjects was the Hon. Judge Wm. Marvin. At that Conference the result of their discussions was embodied in what was subsequently known as the “York” rules. So far was that learned gentleman from deeming the Chamber *committed* to the action of that body that he personally accounted to the writer for not taking a more energetic part in the discussions by the fact that the whole subject had to be referred back to each Government for authoritative action, where it would undergo scrutiny and discussion and a proper revision. Suffice it to say that these rules were found to be so inconsistent and impracticable that no one had the boldness to propose any action whatever looking to their adoption. Since that time there seems to have been little done in this branch—at least no new rules had been announced or proposed until the intended Conference at Antwerp to which our respected contemporary, Mr. F. R. Coudert, was appointed a delegate. At this meeting the York rules were first adopted as a basis for discussion, and it seems to have been decided that the discussion should be limited to amendments and alterations of those particular rules. However that may be, the product of this latter Conference is the York-Antwerp rules, but now accompanied by a new feature: reference to Governmental action is deemed too “old foggyish.” Whether a fear of investigation or a contempt for constituted authorities was the motive, it is certain that, with an unheard-of and certainly unintended assumption, this body arrogates to itself the sole intelligence or capacity to review this subject, and couples with its decisions and results the resolve that at once, January, 1879, all ship-owners be urged to introduce into bills of lading a clause intended to bind all parties to the adoption of these rules, viz.: “General average, if any, to be payable according to the York-Antwerp rules.”



Our own delegate reported fully the proceedings of the Conference to the Chamber, but simultaneously with his report a circular was promptly addressed by another person to ship-owners, merchants, and agents of steam lines, asking that they give their adherence to the rules by introducing the clause in question into all bills of lading to be used after January, 1879. Notice of this circular was brought before the Chamber, and that body referred the whole subject to a committee to report thereon to the Chamber. This committee carefully weighed every argument which could be adduced in favor of these rules, but failed to find them a fitting substitute for our existing law. They were compelled to declare them inconsistent in themselves, opposed to the true and only principles upon which uniformity is desirable, and, therefore, not willingly to be accepted. They further reprobated the very unusual and objectionable mode proposed to accomplish the result of a radical change in the law of the land, viz.: by special clauses in bills of lading. They were of opinion that the only body which the voice of the nation declared should have power over so important a subject was the Congress of the United States, where it would naturally receive full consideration and discussion, and where, if adopted, any legislation would necessarily ensure uniformity, which cannot possibly be claimed or anticipated for individual agreements.

To all and each of these propositions the committee invited attention and discussion, and they have yet to hear an argument which confutes their conclusion. The subject being purely professional, its elementary nature is not readily grasped by the ordinary mercantile mind. To a merchant it is simply an adjustment to which he is called to contribute for sacrifices or expenses incurred on the voyage, with which his only concern is usually to sign a bond and see that his insurer settles the bill. To the ship-owner or agent it is a means of getting back a portion of the account of disbursements and of stating his own claim against his insurers. To this latter class your correspondent belongs, and it is not to be expected that he should look upon it other than a question of barter—"give and take"; "What do we ship-owners gain or lose by the change? How much greater will be the allowance to us of ship's expenses during the delay?" etc. But to the legal mind the entire question is one of principles. The subject has its origin in the golden rule of equity. It seeks to restore the equality existing between all interests, which the act of man has set aside or suspended, for the general safety, and to compel participation in all expenses whereby any interest has been benefited. In such a view, every deviation from principle is unpardonable, for such deviation leads to endless difficulty and confusion. To distribute charges with accuracy and lay them upon their own proper beneficiary; to arbitrate and judge whether a sacrifice is entitled to contribution or not; to determine the exact time when the line of separation of expenses is to be drawn between general and special interests—these demand fixed and settled "principles" of equity. Everything less than these completely fails, for, being founded in injustice, true-minded men and nations will chafe under the restraint of such arbitrary and unjust rules, and will sooner or later set them aside. In such a view, any idea of giving up a practice strictly in accordance with true principles because some other nation, now for the first time alive to its own failings, offers to give adherence to some other practice which cannot be rejected without violation of those principles, is simply absurd. Consequently, the writer did earnestly oppose these rules of the York-Antwerp Conference, and did not discuss any points of the relative loss or gain in dollars to be thereby effected. I respectfully deny any attempt, directly or indirectly, to invoke national prejudice. I did state that Great Britain was the only country on the globe that had sought for the ruling that Rule 5 would establish, and that their own writers declared that their own courts would certainly conform to a different practice whenever the point came before them. And surely the admission by all the rest of the world that the ruling proposed is wrong should outweigh the wish of that one country on the opposite side, admitting that the wish exists, which may be doubted. If this be invoking national prejudice, then I am guilty of the accusation, and am wicked enough not to feel any regret for it. But I will not take up your valuable space with discussions on the merits of the Rules, nor go over the many other forcible objections to other inconsistent and improper changes proposed. The verdict of the committee was a deliberate one, and I stand by it.

If to endeavor conscientiously to preserve and maintain exact principles, instead of abandoning them for some unknown advantage to be derived from uniformity, is to be "one-sided," "erroneous," and "artful," and my arguments are to be stigmatized as "unduly magnified," "self-sufficient," and "discreditable," there would be little encouragement for that standard of uprightness to which I aspire; but I am some-

what consoled by the belief that your correspondent has not a large following, and that the main body of merchants are too intelligent to join him in so unjust and unwarranted premises. At the last meeting of the Chamber a reconsideration was asked for by a ship-owner, who pleaded lack of opportunity to inform himself, although avowing that he had voted with the majority. In this affirmative vote I joined, being willing to have the subject discussed from every aspect, and I am particularly pleased that it affords my esteemed opponent another chance to impress his views upon others; but I trust that he will then show by pertinent arguments that his opinions are based upon some true principles, and not on mere expediency, the doctrine of "give and take," or the reason that some pecuniary gain may be made.

Thanking you for the privilege of transgressing to such an extent on your valuable columns, I am,

Yours sincerely, A. P. HIGGINS,

Chairman of the Committee of the Chamber of Commerce.

NEW YORK, Jan. 7, 1879.

## Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' new announcements include 'The Great Fur Land: Sketches of Life in the Hudson's Bay Territory,' by H. M. Robinson, illustrated; 'Soldier and Pioneer: Life and Family History of Richard Clough Anderson,' a Virginian of the last century; 'The Secret of Success,' by Wm. Davenport Adams; a volume on 'Ethics,' by President John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'The Art of Figure-Drawing,' by C. R. Weigall; a translation of Couture's 'Conversations on Art'; 'Emergencies, and How to Meet Them,' by Prof. Burt G. Wilder, of Cornell University; 'A Reading-Book of English Classics,' by the Rev. C. W. Leffingwell; 'Poesie für Haus und Schule,' by L. R. Klemm; 'The Currency Question,' by Robert W. Hughes, U. S. Judge of the Eastern District of Virginia; and additions to the "Hampton Tracts for the People" and the "Economic Monographs"—among the latter, 'The Currency of the Country,' by Secretary Schurz.—Roberts Bros. have in press Legouvé's 'Reading as a Fine Art,' translated by Miss Abby Alger; Mrs. Haweis's 'Chaucer's Tales Retold for Children'; 'The Dramatic List,' by Charles Eyre Pascoe; Mr. Kegan Paul's 'Mary Wollstonecraft's Letters to Gilbert Imlay'; Seeley's 'Life and Times of Stein'; and Hamerton's 'Life of Turner.'—Henry Holt & Co. will publish this month Mrs. Kemble's 'Records of a Girlhood,' with an early portrait of the author specially engraved for this American edition. They have nearly ready 'Demonology and Devil-Lore,' by Moncure D. Conway, a large work in two volumes, illustrated.—A. S. Barnes & Co. announce as in press the early numbers of the second volume of Mrs. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York.' The same house follow the lead of the *North American* in changing their *International Review* from a bi-monthly to a monthly, beginning with the January number. With the March number, they state, "the editorship will be assumed by Mr. John Torrey Morse, jr., author of the 'Life of Alexander Hamilton,' etc., and by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, formerly editor of the *North American Review*, and author of the 'Life of George Cabot.'" This will be welcome news to those who have not been reconciled to the transformation of the *North American*.—The Hebrew Book Union, 344 W. Thirty-first St., this city, solicit subscriptions to a 'Concise Lexicon to the Talmud, Targums, and Midrash Works,' by F. de Sola Mendes, Ph.D.—The *Jewish Messenger*, 92 Walker St., has begun issuing a monthly supplement called *Hebraica*, devoted to Hebrew literature and the science of the Bible. The editor is Dr. A. S. Isaacs.—The usual abstract of the proceedings of the American Philological Association for their Tenth Annual Session has just been published at Hartford. The eleventh session will be held at Newport, R. I., beginning Tuesday, July 15, 1879.—With the January number the *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club (Cambridge, Mass.) enters upon its fourth volume, with a very prosperous appearance. It is rare indeed that a technical magazine like this supports itself pecuniarily from the start, and is able to double the price of subscription while doubling its size. The publisher is Ruthven Deane.—We have before us the prospectus of the *Philosopher*, "a quarterly periodical, devoted to the advocacy and promulgation of Philosophy in its actual and ideal comprehension." The editor's address is 327 N. Third St., St. Louis.—We have received the first number of the *Canada Educational Monthly*, a magazine of good shape and promise (Toronto).—The *Tribune Almanac* for 1879 maintains its character for usefulness to journalists and politicians especially, but also to a larger public.—

Macmillan & Co. publish in a little pamphlet a course of addresses on Total Abstinence by Dr. B. W. Richardson, which deserve respectful attention on account of the author's standing in his profession. They have also issued Vol. II. of the second edition of Prof. J. E. B. Mayor's 'Thirteen Satires of Juvenal.' It contains the brief life of Juvenal, and the Notes to viii.-xvi. — B. Westermann & Co. send us Part I. Series I. of Kampen's 'Descriptiones nobilissimorum apud classicos locorum,' to which we have before alluded. The contents are two pages of English letter-press on the insides of the cover, and three maps: the rout of the Helvetii, the fight on the Axona, and Alesia. This publication recommends itself strongly to classical instructors. — The honor of gratuitous imprint at the *Imprimerie nationale* has just been awarded to M. O. Douen's 'Clément Marot et le Psautilier Huguenot,' a work in two vols. 8vo, of great erudition, and curious for the specimens it gives of the primitive melodies of the psalms. The prospectus comes to us from the office of the *Société Biblique Protestante*, 5 rue des Beaux-Arts, Paris. — Edmund Hecker has published under the title 'Goethe und Charlotte von Stein' (Stuttgart, Krabbe) the papers which he has recently contributed to Westermann's *Monatshefte*. They have excited a lively interest in Germany from the singularly delicate and discriminating way in which he has treated the much-discussed relations of Goethe to Frau von Stein. He strongly opposes the commonly received theory of a platonic friendship, dwelling especially upon the marked change in Goethe's letters to her from March, 1781—a change which the late Mr. Lewes also referred to in his 'Life of Goethe.' His arguments, though strong and ably urged, are not convincing. — Under the title of 'Atlas de la Production de la Richesse,' Émile Justin has just published a series of twenty colored plates, in which he has ingeniously arranged the main classes of industry and wealth of each country, in order to exhibit their comparative standing, using the circular form of graphic representation invented by Mr. Wines and used in General Walker's 'Census Atlas.' It takes but a glance to comprehend that in a table of the comparative literacy of civilized nations the United States has the greatest number of those able to read and write, leading Germany slightly, while Portugal shows the largest segment of illiteracy, followed closely by Russia.

—The editor of the *United Service*, "a Quarterly Review of Military and Naval Affairs," of which the first number lies before us (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.), proposes that while this magazine shall, as its name indicates, be devoted specially to the interests of the Army and Navy, it shall present at the same time "such articles of general interest as to command the attention of all classes of readers." In fulfillment of this plan the first number contains the proposed variety of pieces, some good and some bad. "Polar Colonization and the Preliminary Arctic Expedition of 1877-78," by Capt. H. W. Howgate; "Conversion of Cannon," by Commodore E. Simpson; "Niagara and the Inter-oceanic Canal Problem," by Commander E. P. Lull; and other technical articles by officers of acknowledged authority on their respective subjects, are specially adapted to the military class of readers. "Four Naval Officers whom I knew," by H. Clay Trumbull; "A Spanish Fair," by Medical Director E. Shippen; and "The Wreck of the *Huron*," by Assistant-Engineer E. T. Warburton, one of the survivors of that disaster, are good average magazine articles. The number opens with an article entitled "Our Navy," by the Senior Flag Officer in the service, which is trivial in substance and undignified in style; and a quasi-scientific article, called "The Sun's Repulsive Force," by Lieut. R. M. G. Brown, is unqualifiedly bad. A good feature in the review is the publication in each number of one or more articles translated from foreign military journals. "Reminiscence of the *New Ironsides* off Charleston," by Capt. Geo. E. Belknap; "The Battle of Port Royal," a poem by Commodore T. H. Stevens; "The Grand Army of the Republic," by Robert B. Beath; and "The Indian Question," by James Joseph Talbot, make up the contents of the number. It is a question whether, in this country, a review devoted to military and naval affairs can command a sufficiently large circulation for success. The one way to secure such a circulation is the employment of good talent. Reminiscences of the late civil war are a trifle stale, even in the popular magazines, and the general reader would naturally expect from a review of this character some extended notice of foreign military affairs and of wars actually in progress. If the review is to be made a vehicle for the incubations of any Army or Navy man who wishes to see his name in print, it is easy to predict that a few numbers will finish its existence.

—We have been tardy in rendering an account of the third (Centennial) volume of the *Memoirs of the Long Island Historical Society*, pub-

lished last fall. It is a remarkable proof of the Society's vigor that it should, in the space of ten years, publish two elaborate histories of the Battle of Long Island—the one, Thomas W. Field's, an octavo volume of 550 pages; the present, by Henry P. Johnston, of a little more than 500. It is safe to predict that a third will never be attempted, for as regards all the main features of this battle, and the fortifications and disposition of troops on the American side, Mr. Johnston's 'Campaign of 1776' has the stamp of a "last word." A clearer, more dispassionate military narrative, better supported by cited evidence, it has never been our good fortune to read; and the topographical details, so interesting to the inhabitants of the two cities separated by the East River, have been worked out so diligently and so admirably mapped that nothing is wanting for a complete understanding of the chain of disasters which began with the surprise of the American patrol at the Jamaica Pass in the early morning of August 27, 1776, and ended with the surrender of Fort Washington on the 16th of November following. Some of the moot points discussed in the text or in the longer notes may be briefly enumerated. General Putnam is vindicated against Baneroff, Field, and others, who have charged him with being responsible for the loss of the battle of Long Island. The British and Hessians are acquitted of excessive cruelty: "that word 'massacre' should have no place in any accurate description of the battle." The American losses are set down at 1,600 in round numbers, confirming Washington's original estimate to Congress. Washington's sudden determination to retreat Mr. Johnston prefers to ascribe, with Gordon, to the development of Howe's intentions of advancing by trenches upon the Brooklyn works. The responsibility for the loss of Fort Washington is fairly divided between the Commander-in-Chief and General Greene—that is, the latter is held accountable for having given bad military advice; the former for having refrained from ordering the evacuation while there was yet time, and when, by his presence at Fort Lee, the acts of his subordinate became his own if not peremptorily countermanded. This disaster by far exceeded all the losses on Long Island, at Kip's Bay, Harlem Heights, and White Plains. In describing the Kip's Bay affair, by the way, Mr. Johnston makes the only slip in a uniformly excellent style when he speaks of Colonel William Douglas having "all but escaped capture"—meaning "was all but captured." The second half of this volume is filled with valuable documents, mostly inedited, of which the most important is General Greene's order-book while in command on Long Island. Corresponding to the scheme of the American army, in chap. iii., is the list in the appendix of officers and men taken prisoners on Long Island. The portraits of four colonels—Lasher, Hand, Glover, and Huntington—are representative of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Connecticut—four of the nine States whose troops composed Washington's army. Finally, the maps are worthy of the highest praise: that representing Manhattan Island in 1776 will be particularly acceptable to New-Yorkers.

—We have received the 'Catalogue of the Loan Exhibition in aid of the Society of Decorative Art' of Chicago. This exhibition, as we in New York, in our old-fashioned way, would call it, was held during the past autumn. A brief prefatory notice, signed by Mr. Stanley Waters, states that the society entrusted to him the collection, arrangement, and cataloguing of the whole. Our New York exhibitions of last year and the year before had not the benefit of a general director. They did very well in spite of that want, especially the latest one, which was really a wonder of clever arrangement and classification, considering the manner of its inception and carrying out. Still, much better things are possible with a competent person at the head, giving time enough to go more or less into detail. And the catalogue especially needs an editor or compiler, if it is to be a "catalogue" at all, in the strict or technical sense. To be a catalogue, and not a mere list, some system of classification must be followed in the work. But in this respect Mr. Waters's work is not carried so far even as the more recent New York Loan-Exhibition catalogue; that at least followed the classification by rooms, and the Oriental wares were carefully separated from European, European pottery from other works of ornamental art, and all from the paintings. But even this primitive division, according to origin and material, has not been followed in the Chicago example. At first it seems that Greek pottery is to be kept by itself, and Majolica, etc., to follow in their order, but at No. 137 this order disappears. The requirements of ownership take precedence; a Minton cup and saucer and a Lowestoft cup are followed by "Towel, old Turkish embroidery, of a stitch not now used," five numbers farther on by a "Collection of Turkish Rag-Babies from Mosul," this by a Japanese crackle vase, and that by an engraving by Raphael Morghen. In one respect, however, this pamphlet goes further than its New York



equivalent: the accounts given of the objects exhibited are fuller and more explanatory, at least in many cases. *Scribner's Monthly* for January, in its editorial pages, has pointed out that it is in this direction chiefly that it will be found practicable to improve these catalogues. Elaborate classification will be found too slow a process, time will be consumed, and the pamphlet will not be ready until long after the opening of the exhibition, but nothing prevents the describing with greater fulness and accuracy each article under its number. All that is needed for that great improvement is to obtain the services of a competent person; but that, as *Scribner* hints, is the difficulty, inasmuch as "the few competent persons are unable to give away their time and knowledge to such an extent, and it is not the fashion with us, as yet, to pay for professional or skilled services where it can possibly be avoided." However little has been done hitherto in this direction, it becomes easier each year to be more full and thorough, and harder each year to remain brief and careless. The step Mr. Waters has taken in the work under consideration will be followed by a longer stride in the same direction without doubt, and whenever loan exhibitions begin to be held by artistic societies for the sake of the exhibition, and not of what it earns, it will be found absolutely necessary to give information with regard to the works of art exhibited at once more full and more carefully arranged than we have allowed ourselves to dream of as yet.

—A recent number of *L'Art* contains, among other engravings from American pictures at the Exhibition, two woodcuts from Mr. Vedder's "The Young Marsyas" and "The Sybil." They are engraved on a large scale, and the woodcuts preserve much of the character of the painting, as well as can be judged by a comparison with three months' intervening. The engraving is not of the last refinement, certainly, but suits the style of the pictures better, perhaps, than if more minute and delicate. The text contains a very severe criticism indeed of these pictures. Oddly enough, it is the use and alleged misuse of classical themes that enrages the writer; he has little to say about the purely artistic qualities of the pictures, but assails them in the same terms that he might use in speaking of a poem of classical subject—Morris's "Bellerophon" or Swinburne's "Atalanta." It certainly seems strange, too, that the magazine should give up so much space to careful engravings of these two works if they were so badly thought of in the editorial office. Mr. Vedder sends, from his studio in Rome, a vigorous protest against the treatment he has received. He alleges that he never means to object to criticism, but that in this case he thinks he was "caught in a trap" and betrayed. His reasoning seems to be: "Certainly I had a right to assume, when I was formally asked leave to engrave a picture, that the said picture was admired; certainly, if I had known that it was despised, and that its appearance in *L'Art* would serve only as a chance for unmeasured abuse of it and of my way of work, I should never have granted the permission asked for." And in this Mr. Vedder is clearly right. As to the merit of the pictures we have now nothing to say; but imagine the position of a writer for an American magazine who should write Mr. Vedder at Rome, to ask for a photograph or drawing that it might be engraved, and then use it in his article only to "pitch into" it and him. Besides the lithographed circular of which we have spoken, there are in town copies of the letter from *L'Art* to Mr. Vedder asking for a drawing of the picture, or, failing that, permission to photograph it, and of his letter to *L'Art* after the appearance of the engravings and the criticism. With a proper feeling Mr. Vedder has made his circular less sharp in language than his letter to the journal.

—In response to numerous memorials from Western agricultural and horticultural bodies, and the petition of a special congress of the executives of the various States and Territories more particularly interested, Congress, in the spring of 1877, created a special commission to report upon the Rocky Mountain locust or Western grasshopper. The commission was charged to make such investigations as would avert, wholly or in part, the fearful destruction to the agriculture of the trans-Mississippi country that had so often followed the undue increase of this pest. The Secretary of the Interior displayed unusual judgment in the appointment on this commission of Prof. C. V. Riley, Dr. A. S. Packard, Jr., and Prof. Cyrus Thomas; and their first annual report, made within the year of appointment, is a monument to the industry, energy, and method with which their enquiries were pursued. Its 700 odd pages are replete with original facts and conclusions in a field that had scarcely been trodden before, and it is one of the few Government documents which will bear republishing in future years, being not only a contribution to science, but a repertory of important practical information. The first edition has

already been found quite inadequate, and the Interior Department has had a small special edition published, while Senator Paddock, of Nebraska, a Chairman of the Senate Committee on Agriculture, has introduced a resolution calling for the printing of 30,000 additional copies. In his annual report Secretary Schurz points to the fact that the problem of destroying the young insects as they hatch in the more fertile country to the southeast is virtually solved by the commission, but that there is an important task yet to be performed in learning how best to prevent the excessive multiplication of the insects in their native northwest breeding-grounds, and their consequent migration therefrom. The small appropriation of \$15,000 is asked for this purpose and to enable the commission to complete the work assigned to it. We give prominence to these facts because the fear is being expressed in some leading agricultural journals that the reorganization of the public surveys, as explained in our last week's issue, will virtually do away with this commission and prevent the completion of its work. This fear is based on the fact that the commission is nominally attached to Hayden's Survey; but whatever action be taken on the recommendation of the National Academy regarding the different surveys, the completion of the work of the Entomological Commission is easily ensured by substituting "under the Interior Department" for "attached to the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories," as the appropriating clause now reads in the bill of estimates. The important work yet to be done in this locust enquiry ought not to be hindered when the obstacle to its accomplishment is so easily removed.

—There seems to be no small danger that the present Congress may show more energy and zeal than wisdom in legislating with regard to the public health and for the prevention of epidemics. Certainly there is great distrust among leading physicians and sanitarians as to the results of the labors of the present Congressional Commission on Epidemics with its so-called experts. Although seven medical men are members of the House and two of the Senate, no one of these was placed on the Committee, and of the experts not more than two have any reputation as sanitarians among those qualified to judge. To this select committee has been referred Senate Bill 1462, introduced by Mr. Lamar, a copy of which we have before us. This bill converts the Marine Hospital Service of the Treasury Department into a Department of Health, with despotic powers in the hands of the Chief of the Department, who can only be removed from office by trial before the Chief-Justice of the United States, and whose salary is to be \$7,500 per annum. He is to make and enforce all quarantine and other regulations for the prevention of cholera, yellow fever, and other epidemic diseases in the United States, can override State and local Boards of Health, close any port, or stop any railroad that he pleases, and is responsible to no one. When it is remembered that the person who is to have these powers and privileges, and for whose exclusive benefit the bill seems to be drawn, is now the chief of the experts who are counselling the select Congressional Committee just referred to, and that he was the sole professional adviser of the Committee in the selection of its experts, there certainly seems good reason for the declaration of the American Public Health Association, through its officers, that "the true interests of public health and sanitary science in the United States are in grave danger at the present time."

—This declaration we find in a memorial signed by the officers and Executive Committee and members of the Advisory Committee of the Association, as the result of their deliberations at a special meeting in Washington January 2 and 3, 1879, and as the names appended to it are those of the best known sanitarians in this country their advice certainly demands respectful consideration. They urgently recommend that no legislation be undertaken by the present Congress with regard to a National Quarantine, but that a Provisional National Health Commission be authorized to elaborate and report to the next Congress a plan for a permanent organization bearing a similar title. This plan, they continue, should include one for a national system of quarantine, and should be prepared after consultation with the State Boards of Health and experts. The Commission should also "take charge of any investigations into the causes and means of prevention of yellow fever," or any other epidemic diseases referred to it by Congress. To free it from all suspicion of incompetence or political intrigue, its members should be selected by the National Academy of Sciences. The Association further think it "highly desirable that there should be added to the Standing Committees of the Senate and House of Representatives a Committee on Public Health."

—The rage for burlesque seems to continue with unabated force wher-

ever the English language is spoken, and it continues to improve in musical as well as in dramatic qualities. With "Evangeline" at Booth's, the "Babes in the Wood" at the Park, and even a private production of "Fair Rosamond" at the Union League Theatre, for the benefit of the Harvard Crew (all very successful), there can be no doubt as to the popular liking for this sort of extravaganza, though its popularity is also well calculated to make the judicious theatre-goer occasionally grieve over the decadence of the drama, or of popular taste, or both. With the exception of one or two plays ("Trial by Jury" and "H. M. S. Pinafore" are the only productions of the kind that we now recall) there is a total want in the English burlesque school of any regard for, or even recognition of, the laws which regulate this branch of the drama. Burlesque on the stage is no new thing; to take a single example, almost the whole of Sheridan's "Critic" is burlesque of the wildest description; but it is burlesque which makes fun of the subjects selected intelligently. There is burlesque statesmanship, and burlesque love, and burlesque war, but they are all recognized at once as based on a perfectly just appreciation of what the real thing is, and the difference between it and the sham. In the French *opéra bouffe*, too, in its wildest moments, there is always a coherent and intelligent idea behind the absurdity; and though professors of wit and humor might not in all cases agree as to what particular intention underlay a particular piece of *bouffe*, there is never a feeling of that emptiness and weariness produced by efforts to be amusing, which fail because there is nothing to be amused at. Modern English burlesque, however, knows no law of any kind. Generally some familiar fairy story is taken and dramatized with changes which relieve it of all its prettiness, and incorporate into it much vulgarity. Sometimes, instead of a fairy story, it is a myth or historical story; and always the aim of the author is to make his dialogue full of puns and meaningless play upon words, and airs and choruses more or less pretty. Although an enormous amount of labor is misspent on the dialogue, the music is really what makes the whole endurable; for it is impossible to imagine any one listening to an English burlesque as a play for half an hour. In the music there is steady improvement, as any one will admit who will compare such singing as that of the Park company in the "Babes in the Wood" with that which Miss Lydia Thompson used to provide for the public a few years since.

—It has been a matter of wonder and regret that to this day the land of Goethe, the book-making country *par excellence*, has not produced any edition of the works of its greatest literary genius worthy of the man and the land. Up to 1867 the copyright of Goethe's works was owned by the Cottas of Stuttgart, who published many different editions on good and bad paper, but all equally poor with regard to the text, which was corrupted to unintelligibility and full of misprints copied from one edition into the next, and often improved on after the fashion of Mr. Ballhorn (as the German saying goes), but never benefited by any critical revision or an attempt at such. When at last the copyright ceased and everybody could print Goethe the market was flooded with 8vo, 12mo, 16mo, and other editions in German and Roman type, with and without illustrations. None of them, however, with the exception, perhaps, of the illustrated edition of Grote, in Berlin, were any improvement, with regard either to external appearance or textual revision, on the old Cotta editions. To the late Gustav Hempel, of Berlin, one of Germany's most enterprising publishers, the Fatherland is indebted for the first "nach den vorzüglichsten Quellen revidirte Ausgabe" of the works of Goethe (and many other classic writers), published in "Hempel's Nationalbibliothek der deutschen Classiker." Since 1868, G. von Loeper, Strehlke, Biedermann, Düntzer, and the publisher himself, although his name does not appear on the title-page except as publisher, have edited that truly excellent edition which has already become the standard one quoted by all scholars. Its size and print, however, are inadequate to the greatness of Goethe's fame and the place he takes among the writers of all ages, not to speak of the wishes of book-lovers and bibliomaniacs. If a French publisher could bring forth a monumental, almost folio, edition of Alfred de Musset, with fine engravings, which his countrymen absorbed to the last copy, though the heavy volumes almost weighed down the graceful but by no means grand poet, the German bookseller had to blush when he could offer none but this pocket edition of the giant among modern writers as the only textually recommendable one. It is with a genuine feeling of great satisfaction, therefore, that at last, forty and odd years after his death, we can announce that a second "Bearbeitung" of Hempel's Goethe is spoken of as in preparation, which is meant in its outward dress too to take the measure from the man. As a precursor, "Faust," with introduction and annotations by

G. von Loeper, is announced by Hempel's publishing house, in 8vo, well printed on good paper, as appears from a prospectus just issued. Although even this new effort might have aimed a good deal higher, yet, if one thinks of the various library editions of Shakspeare, Milton, Molière, Dante, and *dii minorum gentium*, the text and notes will certainly be all that can be desired; for Loeper nowadays holds without doubt the first rank among Goethe scholars—an opinion academically endorsed last year by the Berlin University, which conferred on him the degree of "Doctor phil. honoris causa" for his eminent services as editor of Hempel's Goethe; and it is to be borne in mind that the Berlin University, if anything, is quite the contrary of lavish in thus honoring even those to whom honor is due. There is no doubt that this second edition will be benefited by the vast material brought to light since the first was started, and by the many fresh contributions to the study of Goethe, in a great measure brought out by the Hempel edition. Germany, and the adherents of the Goethe Cultus at large, may well be congratulated on this prospect, if there is reason to congratulate Goethe's country for performing a sacred duty at so very late a date.

—The German periodicals are just at present filled with discussions as to the relations between Darwinism and Socialism. Those who have clear and definite ideas regarding these two "isms" must be at first inclined to regard the matter in the light of a broad joke. Certainly nothing could be more comic or even grotesque than the accusation that evolution or Darwinism has furnished the Social-Democrats with weapons of defence or justification. One is tempted, therefore, to attribute the whole discussion to the proverbially defective sense of humor which characterizes the Germans as a people. But when one finds no less an authority than Professor Virchow hinting at a connection between the two pernicious doctrines, and Professors Haeckel, Oscar Schmidt, and Carl Vogt protesting against the accusation of such an alliance, one feels bound to pause for a moment and see what this new paper-war is really about. At the fifty-first assembly of German naturalists, at Cassel, Prof. Oscar Schmidt delivered a lecture on this topic, which subsequently appeared in the *Rundschau*, and may now be obtained in pamphlet form. Haeckel's remarks on the subject will be found in the preface to his reply to Virchow; while Vogt's letters have appeared in the *feuilleton* of recent numbers of the *Neue Freie Presse*. One ingenious Socialist, it appears, has made the remarkable discovery that the fundamental maxim of Darwinism teaches the perfect equality of all men; while another kindly informs us that Marx's book on Capital, the Socialist's bible, is the continuation and completion of Darwin's "Origin of Species" and "Descent of Man." On the other side, an Ultramontane newspaper published at Berlin did not hesitate to make the theory of descent responsible for the murderous assaults of the Socialists Hödel and Nobiling. Such statements, of course, do not come within the sphere of serious criticism. Considering that no theory was ever announced in more precise and definite language than that of Darwin, it seems to take an abnormal amount of time to beat into most people's heads correct ideas in regard to it. The only point in which a Darwinist may condescend to shake hands with a Social-Democrat is that both reject certain religious dogmas relating to the special creation of man. In all other respects, however, the two parties in question are directly at cross-purposes with each other. While the Socialist clamors for an equal distribution of property and privileges, the banner of Darwinism bears the motto, Selection—the survival and preference of the fittest in the struggle for life. This is essentially an aristocratic principle. If by some decree of Providence the Socialist ideal should be suddenly realized, and all wealth and rank equally divided, a few years would suffice, through the operation of natural selection, to restore the old order of things. That the word *fitness* is not synonymous with moral worth but with power is not Darwin's fault. He did not make the world. All he did was to point out that the struggle for life, with its consequences, is found everywhere in nature, in human society as well as among the lower animals and plants. Civilization has, however, done something to counteract the harshest results of the law of selection. We have hospitals and charitable institutions for the deaf and dumb, the cripples, the insane, and for those even who are afflicted with incurable diseases—all of whom in a state of nature would be eliminated. Now, if some bold moralist should step forward and argue that the law of selection should be restored in all its vigor and these individuals allowed to perish, he would be a proper subject of attack for all those who believe in the principles of Christian ethics. But to make Darwin and his followers responsible for Socialist disorders because they have pointed out that to some extent the law of selection operates in human society, is not a bit less ridiculous than it would be in case a falling meteor should kill



a peasant in the field to accuse Newton of murder because he pointed out the law of universal gravitation.

—Don Baldomero Espartero died last week, at the age of eighty-six years and ten months. Though he "outlived his time of public activity by nearly a quarter of a century, his record, either as a general or a statesman, has not been eclipsed by a single name in the Spanish history of his time. The achievements of the most renowned Spaniards who figured during his long life—though the list includes Palafox, Riego, Toreno, Mina, Cabrera, Martínez de la Rosa, Olózaga, Narvaez, O'Donnell, Prim, Serrano, and Castelar—are insignificant in comparison with his. The best of his competitors in the field of ambition failed to achieve lasting success, from lack of ability or from excess of enthusiasm; the most successful stained their record by self-degradation at the court of Maria Christina or of Isabella, by political desertion, and by shedding blood profusely in the cause of despotic repression or in reckless insurrections. Espartero's public career—whatever the inner traits of his character and the real springs of his actions may have been—was free throughout from blots of this kind. He fought for the independence of Spain against the French (enlisting in 1808), for her power against the South-American insurgents (1815-24), and for her freedom against the Carlists (1833-40); and when constant victory in the struggle with the latter successively raised him to the dignity of commander-in-chief (1836), of duke (1839), and of regent for Queen Isabella (1841), he clung to his Progressist banner, maintained his dignity against the abettors of Maria Christina, and succumbed (1843) only to a combination of rivalries, intrigues, and anarchical opposition such as a bloody terrorism alone could have disarmed. In exile (1843-7) and in voluntary retirement (1848-54) he abstained from conspiring, and when sharing power with O'Donnell (1854-6) he represented the Progressist side of the coalition. In his last retirement he declared his adhesion to the cause of the people on the fall of Isabella (1868), and declined to be a candidate for the vacant throne, when his name was brought forward in the Cortes (1870). He was the son of a wheelwright.

—Poggio Bracciolini, the famous scholar of the Renaissance, to whom we owe the discovery and preservation of so many classic works, is now chiefly remembered for the collection of questionable anecdotes which he published in the last years of his life under the title 'Liber Facietiarum.' The officers of the Roman chancery were accustomed during the pontificate of Martin V. to assemble in an apartment called the *Bugiale* (which Poggio explains by *mendaciorum officina*) and tell stories. "No one was spared there," says Poggio; "we spoke ill of all that displeased us. Often the Holy Father furnished the starting-point for our criticisms, and many persons came to our meetings for fear that we would begin with them." These stories Poggio turned into Latin, to see, as he says, whether it was possible to render into Latin many ideas which are considered difficult to express in that tongue. They proved very popular, some thirteen editions, including translations, having been published since 1470. Many of these editions have become scarce, while the text of the majority is incomplete and bad. The want of a complete edition led to the recent publication at Paris of the Latin text with a French translation. A small number of copies were printed and sold at once. A second edition has since appeared under the title 'Les Facéties de Poggio' (Paris: Liseux, 1878). The text is preceded by a bibliographical notice, a life of Poggio, and an examination of his various writings. The stories are unaccompanied by notes, which lessens the value of the edition for scholars, who will still be obliged to refer to the edition of Noel (London: 1798). There is, however, an index of proper names containing some historical information. The collection is chiefly valuable for the history of the culture of the Renaissance, and also for comparative storiology, as some one has named the genealogy and comparison of popular tales. It was also the first of the long series of *Facetiae* which make such a show in the literature of the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries. The last edition forms part of the *Petite Collection Elzévirienne*, and is most daintily printed.

#### ROSCHER'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.\*

THE present status of the science of political economy is most unsatisfactory. While the chief scholars in the science are not agreed as to its methods, axioms, or objects, it can hardly be expected to advance steadily or rapidly, and it will be exposed to the easy contempt of char-

latans and "practical men" on the one side, and to the confusion produced by clever but ill-trained adherents on the other. It has been known that the Germans, having only latterly taken up the study of political economy, professed to have reconstructed the science which their predecessors in England and France had only entangled, and to have given it form, method, limits, and purpose. We have now before us the first English translation of an important work in this school. No doubt this task has been so long neglected because it was not believed that the German systematic works contributed anything at all proportioned to their bulk to the science as already presented in English text-books, but the appearance, in an English dress, of a work which has long enjoyed high reputation on the Continent is nevertheless an important incident in the history of political economy amongst us. It is likely to produce a controversy similar to that which has been for a good while carried on between the French and German economists as to the merits of the "historical method." It is very possible, also, that it may for a time only increase the confusion now reigning in the science, because the views of the historical school are well adapted to captivate just that group of professed economists who, as an English critic expressed it, "only muddle things." We believe, therefore, that it is especially necessary to point out, upon the introduction of this work, (1) that economists cannot be divided into schools which are distinguished by the fact that some study history and others do not, so that the issue raised by the designation "historical" is not correctly joined; and (2) that Roscher is by no means a fair representative of the new German or historical school.

Roscher mentions but one other school to be distinguished from his own. This he calls the "idealistic." He does not define it very clearly, and does not mention the writers who compose it; but he seems to refer to the utopia-makers, or to the *à priori* world-reformers. It is a perfectly legitimate usage, however, to exclude all such writers from the group of "economists" altogether. If they were to be included, and then distinguished as non-historical, the distinction would be just; but it would contribute nothing to the classification of the economists properly so called, while there are distinctions among the latter which require classification. Roscher has behind him a whole school of writers who have seized upon certain notions and tendencies of his and pushed them to exaggerations in every direction. In his doctrines he agrees with the great English and French economists of the century which has just closed; but his followers (as they call themselves) have run off into every divergent doctrine as to wages, rent, population, and international trade. Roscher does not limit political economy to the bounds observed by English and French economists. He makes it a point to go over the bounds of the science and to trench upon those of the art of economy, especially when in taking the latter step he is led into statecraft, or the art of the statesman. He believes that this is proper for the economist. Hence these two volumes only reproduce the first of four which his plan comprises. His followers of the school embrace in their works discussions of moral, social, aesthetic, and philanthropic projects. Instead of striving, as the English and French economists have done, to give precision to the science, they overload and dissipate it by introducing all sorts of matter into it, and by taking away its boundaries. Instead of favoring a division of labor between History, Statecraft, Law, Police, and Political Economy, and seeking to advance by the more complete and independent development of each of these subjects by itself, they obscure all the distinctions between them. They yield themselves, also, in pursuing the course described, to the motives of sympathy, sentiment, benevolent preference, and philanthropic hope. They therefore present too often the spectacle of men with whims or hobbies. One has a "fad" for trades-unions, another for co-operation, another for forest-culture, another for preventing a scarcity of houses, another for putting a stop to stockjobbing.

Roscher allows to the state a degree of initiative and regulation which may seem practicable and advisable to a German, but which few Englishmen or Americans would approve. To take an instance which Americans are in a good situation to criticize, it is only necessary to refer to what he says about emigration and colonies—things which certainly involve some measure of statesmanship. This economist undertakes to discuss the advantages to a country of getting colonies by state initiative when it has none; where they should be, how they should be organized, etc. He appears to assume that they would certainly trade with the mother country, and even hints at a "colonial policy" of taxation. He also follows emigrants to their new home in an independent state, and discusses their subsequent relations to their old home, or to their new neighbors on account of their old home. The impropriety, from a scientific point of view, of such speculations could not be more clearly demon-

\* 'Principles of Political Economy. By William Roscher. With Chapters on Paper Money, International Trade, and the Protective System; and an Essay on the Historical Method in Political Economy, by L. Wolowski. The whole translated by John J. Lalor, A.M.' 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.

strated. They are necessarily *a priori* speculations; they do not deal with scientific theorems but with practical exigencies; they belong to a domain foreign to the writer, viz., that of the statesman. Another example is furnished by the Appendix on the protective policy. After stating with great clearness the grounds for free-trade, the author declares that infant industries may properly be nursed by protective taxes. This is a most plausible notion when regarded *a priori*, but there is no notion which "history" has more distinctly proved to be fallacious.

Roscher's followers have here again exaggerated his tendency. They invariably look to the state for the force to execute the projects to which they take a fancy. They exaggerate his almost comical horror of "atomism." They distrust the individual and regard his initiative as always selfish and anti-social. They trust the state without reserve; they believe in its power and wisdom, and seem to think selfishness has no possible place in its activity. But it is to be observed that the economist who recommends to the statesman to take certain measures so as to realize certain social improvements, must have before his mind an "ideal" of what he wants to see accomplished. It may not be a Utopia, but it is the present society modified as to one or more of its elements. He may have borrowed his ideal from an obsolete state of society instead of creating it in his fancy, but it is just as impossible to wake the dead as to create a new order of men, and just as impossible to revive a dead institution as to create one *a priori*. The economist may bring forward any amount of historical lore; he is none the less an idealist, and with his state control set at work to "elevate" society or classes, he is a socialist.

The men of this school in Germany have assumed the name of the "historical school." In their books is to be found a great mass of material in reference to the history of economic doctrines and literature, and in regard to the history of institutions. The zeal and industry with which this material has been collected are recognized by everybody. Its value is unquestionable and unquestioned. No economist nowadays can afford to neglect this material. Roscher's book comprises, for perhaps nine-tenths of its substance, historical and statistical notes of great interest and value. They embrace the history of the doctrines presented, the literature of the subject, illustrations of the text, and statistical proofs. In general, it may be said of these notes that they are judiciously selected and limited. They unquestionably add much to the interest and satisfaction with which the reader peruses the text. But it cannot be said that there is here any novelty of method. It is at most a matter of degree. The text proceeds by the deductive method common to all the economists. The opening sentence of the book is, "The starting point as well as the object point of our science is Man," a proposition which is entirely idle and superfluous, because it is true of political economy only as it is true of any other science. It is, however, one of the points on which the "school" prides itself, that it keeps this proposition in mind, and it is the proposition by means of which it breaks down the proper limits of the science, and sallies forth as has been already described. This stumbling block being passed, the next sentence is, "Every man has numberless wants," and from this axiom the whole system is deductively constructed in the usual manner.

Here again the disciples have left far behind the reserve and moderation of the master. It is easy to see how this method of constructing books (for this is what it is, and not a method of treating the science) may be abused. The notes may run into pedantry or display of erudition, or they may include mere antiquarian curiosities. Such notes are, in fact, dangerous, for they can only be fragmentary and one-sided, and nothing is more mischievous to the science than generalizations from fragments of history and shreds of statistics. These errors are abundantly illustrated in the literature of the "historical school." There are treatises which pretend to discuss doctrines, but stop short with a history of doctrine. There are others which give a history and then take flight into the realms of speculation. To the careless reader the former part may seem to give some authority to the latter when there is really no nexus at all. The best-informed scholar is the one who knows best how very difficult it is to obtain from books a deep and thorough comprehension of social conditions which are past or remote, and how careful it is necessary to be in drawing inferences. In proof of this we have only to refer to the statements about the United States in the book before us. They are rarely accurate, and never sufficiently comprehensive. It is to be observed, further, that these historical and statistical notes lose value as time goes on, unless they are brought down to date with every new edition of the dogmatic treatise of which they form a part. This is done to some extent in Roscher's book, but the standpoint is still that of the first edition, twenty-five years ago. The method of the his-

torical school, therefore, even as a method of book-making, is only an extension of that with which we are all familiar, and it is open to question how far that extension is wise.

It appears, then, that the "historical school" has no monopoly of respect for history, that it embraces men of extremely different opinions, of whom Roscher is perhaps the most conservative who could be mentioned, that it has no "method" which can be distinguished from other methods, or which is an independent method of treating a science, and that the men who are grouped in it have in common a set of views as to the limits of political economy and its relations to other sciences, a set of motives in sentiment, sympathy, and hope, and a peculiar faith in "the state." These latter peculiarities, however, are what constitute a "school." The opponents of the "historical school" have, therefore, never disparaged the historical method, and have never admitted the justice of the designation assumed, and they have given to the school in question the name of the "professorial socialists." The opponents study history in its breadth and sweep, believing that it is only when thus studied that its true lessons can be learned, or, especially, that the social forces at work in it can be discerned and their laws discovered. History, therefore, cannot be written together with dogmatic science, but is a separate discipline which must be cultivated by itself. The same may be said of statistics. The scientific economists (if we may so call them for distinction) aim to restrict political economy within the limits of a definite group of phenomena, and to work out the laws controlling those phenomena with the greatest possible precision. They therefore draw the line between the science and the art as sharply as possible. They regard the state, for all purposes which here come into account, as simply a group of men, who will be found no different from other men, and against whom the individual must be guaranteed his liberty just as much as against his neighbors. They perceive that the social order is controlled by laws in regard to which man has nothing to do but to learn and obey them. The existing social state presents those laws under complex phenomena, which cannot be separated by experiment. The object of study, therefore, is: What is; and the value of history is that it shows in operation the forces of which the existing status is the resultant, and thus helps to explain it. As for what ought to be, or what will be, with that science has nothing to do, but economic science teaches just what other sciences do—namely, that man will be better off in this world just in proportion as individuals apprehend correctly the laws of life which this science teaches within its domain, and regulate themselves accordingly. The "historical school" bears witness in its polemics to the fact that the scientific economists are its true adversaries.

We have several times remarked that Roscher presents the errors of the school in their mildest form, and that the doctrines which he teaches are those of the "orthodox" economists. The chapter on Population is the best in the book, and it contains the best exposition of that subject before the public—stated, too, within very moderate limits. This chapter and the one on Rent present those subjects in a manner especially adapted to meet the empty objections which are most current on this side of the water. The chapter on Wages is not so strong. Although in the main correct, it stumbles over the doctrine that a demand for commodities is not a demand for labor.

The translation is very conscientious and correct. German, with its numerous abstract terms, lends itself with facility to a writer who is willing to yield occasionally to kindly feeling. When such a sentence is translated into English, there is likely to be little clear sense in it; but it is not the translator's fault. However, on page 12 of vol. ii., the author is made to say: "If justice pure and simple were meted [out in the distribution of products] no man could *subsist*." What he says is: "No man could stand the test" (*bestehen*). This assertion is out of place, for it alludes to other considerations than those in the context, but it is very different from the former assertion.

*Thirty Years at Sea.* By E. Shippen. U.S.N. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.)—The argument of this book is the adventures of a boy born at sea, working his way up from before the mast to being captain of a brig and acting-master in our Navy. In his career he is concerned in every form of adventure known to the annals of the sea. The scenes and events are described with much minuteness, but some of the observations are trivial and some out of character. As a whole the descriptions lack color. Some most tragic events are treated with the brevity and baldness of a school geography; others, which evidently are part of the writer's own experience, are much more stirring in the reading, and among these are the loss of the *Congress* and the actions of Fort



Fisher. Both the last are familiar passages of history, and need not be repeated. But the scenes on board the fleet described by an eye-witness are full of interest. The captain of the *Congress* had been detached and was waiting on board for a transport to take him South to his new command. The ship was temporarily in charge of the first-lieutenant, who had orders to take her to Philadelphia, and lay her up as soon as she was relieved by her successor. She expected to sail about the 10th of March. The existence of the *Merrimack* was well known, but the endurance of ironclads had never been tested. It was believed on board the *Congress* that if she could get the *Merrimack* under her guns she could send her to the bottom. The frigate *Congress* and the sloop *Cumberland* were off Newport News, at the mouth of James River. The frigates *Ranoke*, *Minnesota*, and *St. Lawrence* were off Fort Monroe in Hampton Roads, which was full of army and navy supply-boats. The 8th of March was a fine, soft day, such as at the South often gives early promise of summer. The men were engaged in their regular dull routine at anchor, and the officers on deck were lazily moving about and watching the gulls. Between twelve and one p.m. the lookout on the *Congress* reported three steamers coming out of Norfolk. Two of them were the *Jamestown* and *Yorktown*, and the third, which looked more like a child's Noah's ark, was soon recognized as the *Merrimack*.

As they kept on slowly clear of Sewell's Point they were seen from Hampton Roads and created no small stir there. They soon turned into the James River channel, which disclosed their purpose. The two great steam frigates in the Roads, assisted by tugs, and the *St. Lawrence*, depending on tugs alone, directly got under way and hurried up to meet the *Merrimack*. In their eagerness they pushed into shallow water and ran aground, one after the other, a mile or two from Newport News. There they lay helpless and anxious, excited spectators of the fate of their consorts, which seemed impending over themselves. In the meantime, as soon as the object of the attack was evident, the *Congress* beat to quarters, and her drum was instantly answered by that of the *Cumberland*. Springs had been put on the cables for just this emergency, and the men had been drilled at springing the broadside in different directions. Now the tide was too strong. The ship would not move, and her broadside could not be brought to bear. As it turned out this made no difference in the result. The *Merrimack* came on silently and doggedly. When near enough to make out her plating the *Congress* fired a solid shot from a stern gun. It struck full on the forward casemate of the *Merrimack* and bounded off like an india-rubber ball. At this the hearts of our men sank within them. They had known they were weaker for defence, and now they saw they were powerless for offence. The *Merrimack* answered with grape from a forward port with destructive effect. She then passed the *Congress* within two hundred yards, receiving her broadside and delivering one in return. The discharge of the *Congress* apparently had no effect. That of the *Merrimack*, on the contrary, was fearful. Most of the men hit were killed outright. A single shell dismounted one gun and killed or wounded every man of its crew. After this the *Merrimack* kept steadily on up the river. The crew of the *Congress* in their pitiable inexperience thought she was beaten off, and began to cheer. They were soon undeceived. She headed for the *Cumberland*, whose guns, though well served, were as useless as those of the *Congress*. When near enough, she put her helm hard a-port and drove her ram into the *Cumberland's* sides. The heavy timbers and thick plunks were crushed as if they had been sugar-frosting. The fine sloop filled rapidly and sank in deep water in a few minutes. Some small steamers and boats from the shore gallantly put off to the rescue, and saved large numbers in the water.

While this was passing, the *Congress* was found to be on fire in four places. One of these was near the after-magazine. This fire was never extinguished. With the fate of the *Cumberland* before her eyes the first care of the *Congress* was to get into shallow water. She set her jib and topsails, slipped her chains, and, with the help of a tugboat, under a sharp fire from the smaller rebel gunboats, ran on the flats that make off from Newport News Point. The tide was on the ebb. As it fell the frigate heeled over, leaving only her stern guns to bear. When the *Merrimack* had finished with the *Cumberland* she dropped down the river again and took up a position about one hundred and fifty yards astern of the *Congress* and raked her fore and aft with her eighty-pound shells. The other steamers concentrated their fire on her from a greater distance. The state on board was now dreadful, and soon became desperate. The bulkheads and partitions between decks had been shattered by shells and knocked away by axemen, making way for hose to keep down the fires. Men were falling at every shot. The shells searched them out every-

where. Wounded men taken to the cockpit were killed there while waiting their turn with the surgeon. Others were laid in rows on the cockpit deck, drenched with icy salt water, which had to be sluiced over it to keep the fire away from the shell-room hatch. Once when the fire of the remaining guns slackened it was found that the line of men stationed on the berth-deck to pass "full boxes" had all been killed or wounded. Soon the last gun was disabled. No succor was to be seen. The ship was defenceless. She had borne her hopeless torture over an hour. To stop useless slaughter she hauled down her colors. A boat from the *Merrimack*, and subsequently one of the smaller steamers, boarded the prize and took off some prisoners. The *Congress* could not be got off. It was slow work to remove her wounded. It would have been scandalous to blow her up full of them. It was concluded to leave her to the fire, which there was now no chance of extinguishing. The infantry on shore was making it uncomfortable for the captors to loiter on board longer; and in a few minutes—about four p.m.—the flotilla passed down to destroy the stranded *Minnesota*. Fortunately, the noble frigate was saved by the shallowness of the water in which she lay. Then the Confederates floated back to a delicious welcome at Norfolk, and the sun soon set on their short day of naval triumph.

Left to themselves, the survivors in the *Congress* plugged up the holes in her shattered boats, and, with some aid from the army, worked far into the night bringing ashore their wounded comrades. The officers came with the last boat. To bring it safe to land they had to go overboard in the ice-cold water and swim and wade ashore. About midnight the fire reached the magazine, and the ship blew up. Since dinner, of her crew one-third were killed, wounded, drowned, or taken prisoners. Before the explosion the *Monitor* had arrived in the Roads and had been ordered to the assistance of the *Minnesota*, much as a terrier might be set to protect a bull. There she quietly passed the night under the shadow of the great ship, ready for her timely and famous service of the next day. But in this the author apparently took no part.

The narrative ends with the two bombardments of Fort Fisher. Subsequent voyages are kept for another volume, which the public is encouraged to hope for. If in this the hero is represented as being as much of a Jonah as in the first one, there will be little fear of its tempting any but the boldest boys to run away from home to go to sea.

*Scientific Memoirs: Being Experimental Contributions to a Knowledge of Radiant Energy.* By John William Draper. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1878.)—It may be a debatable question whether the winning of scientific recognition is more determined by ethical principles than the acquisition of wealth is. If an honest, capable, and industrious man fails to acquire a fortune so rapidly as his more stupid neighbor, it is vain for him to demonstrate to the world that he is the one who is entitled to the largest share of success. We should be sorry to suppose that it was equally useless to demonstrate to the scientific world that an investigator whom it had long overlooked was really entitled to the highest recognition—indeed, the case of Dr. Draper himself shows that it would be a mistake to do so; yet it is certain that such recognition often seems to depend on circumstances as little capable of judicial examination as those which determine success or failure in other walks of life. One who reads between the lines of the present collection of Professor Draper's papers may see in it a disposition to show the scientific reader that one of the pioneers in the experimental study of the radiation of heat and light has been strangely overlooked. He was an active worker in this direction when some of our present workers were not born, and many of our present leading men took their first lessons in chemistry from his book on the subject.

Undoubtedly the most interesting chapters in the book are those on spectrum analysis, which show that the author is to be added to the list of those who preceded Kirchhoff in suggesting and applying this wonderful method; doing everything, in fact, but complete the invention and generalize the principles on which it rests. It has sometimes been said that when a scientific problem is once clearly stated it is half solved. Thirty years ago our author stated and attacked the problem of spectrum analysis so clearly that nothing remained but to answer the question by continuing his experiments. "Can any connection be traced between the chemical nature of a substance, or the conditions under which it burns, and the nature of the light it emits?" "It is," he adds, "to the discussion of that problem that this memoir is devoted." We question whether any one had ever before stated the problem so fully and attacked it so directly. Unfortunately, his attack was not carried so far as to lead to any new generalization in the line of spectrum

analysis. He examined the spectra of various flames, and thought they enabled him to divide flames into two classes, according as they did or did not contain incombustible matter. In those flames which were very faint he saw bright Fraunhoferian lines of different colors, but he failed to notice that these lines were characteristic of gases, and, by their endless variety, capable of being used to distinguish the special gases of which the flame was composed. How he could in this way have missed the capital discovery when he had it before his eyes is an interesting question. The principal reason is probably to be found in the lack of attrition with other minds engaged in like courses of thought. This lack is the greatest drawback to the continuous prosecution and persistent following up of scientific investigation in a country such as ours was a few years ago. Had Dr. Draper had fellow-laborers and rivals to discuss his methods and results, and suggest fresh ideas, it is hardly conceivable that he would have failed to follow out the investigation in which he made so good a start. With a greater familiarity with the literature of the subject we can hardly doubt that he would have devised some better theory of the cause of the dark lines in the solar spectrum than those he advanced. Sir John Herschel had already suggested that they were due to a selective absorption in a solar atmosphere, and Draper himself had long before shown that some of them were due to absorption by the earth's atmosphere. Combining Herschel's theoretical view with his own experimental results, he could hardly have failed to conclude that they might be entirely due to gaseous absorption. But the historical fact seems to be that no such generalization suggested itself to his mind; on the contrary, the idea he repeatedly expresses is that the existence of the dark lines depends in some way upon the nature or qualities of the luminous source itself rather than on an external cause.

Describing things simply as they are, without enquiring whether they ought to be different, we find it a general fact in the history of inventions and scientific discovery that the largest portion of the advantage and credit of a result is divided among a very small fraction of those who contribute to it. The general rule is that the one who, by ever so small a modification, makes the invention work in practice, or who, by generalizing the results of his predecessors, distinctly enunciates a law of nature, reaps the lion's share of the credit. It will be readily seen that under the action of this rule our author might be passed over, as one who had not carried his researches to such a point that they would bear fruit without farther generalization. It is, however, worth while to note a growing feeling on the part of his countrymen that full justice has not been done him in the past, and a disposition to render him that credit now which he ought to have received a quarter of a century ago.

We have taken Dr. Draper's researches in spectrum analysis as the text of our remarks. These, however, fill but a small portion of the volume, less than one-fifth, and by no means exhaust the scientific claims of the author. The various memoirs cover the field of radiant energy, and especially of the chemical action of light, to so wide an extent that it is impossible to enter into details. It will suffice to cite, as an example, that we here have the first, if not the only, American contributions to the theory of the daguerreotype, and that a daguerreotype of the moon taken nearly forty years ago by Dr. Draper was the first "photograph" of a celestial object ever known to have been taken.

*The First Violin.* A novel. By Jessie Fothergill. [Leisure-Hour Series, No. 101.] (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—We have read this story with a good deal of entertainment and interest, though it would have been better had it been a third shorter. It reveals at frequent intervals an unpractised hand, and is, presumably, a first or second effort at fiction. A young English country girl, May Wedderburn, gifted with a fine voice, is the heroine; the "First Violin" is the hero of the romance. The story is told alternately by May herself and the hero's friend, Friedhelm Helfen, not in letters, but in the first person, as separate narrators. May has two sisters, and at Skernford, the quiet English town where her father the Vicar lives, attracts the attention of a rich but bad Englishman, Sir Peter Le Marchant, who proposes marriage to her. She rejects him, whereupon her sister Adelaide, worldly and proud, and with a profound confidence in her own ability to manage any husband she may marry, secures him. But meantime May has been taken out of England by Miss Hallam, an aged spinster, of eccentric but benevolent character, to whom she has confessed her horror and detestation of Sir Peter. To Germany they repair, Miss Wedderburn as a sort of companion. At Cologne she misses her way and loses herself in the railway station, when she meets a stranger of romantic and impressive aspect, one who has seen much of life but has not been spoiled by it; he gives her a good deal of valu-

able information about the trains for Elberthal, the place to which she is going, departing somewhat from the strict truth (and who could blame him?) for the sake of prolonging the interview, and finally persuades her to lunch with him and go to the Cathedral, where she hears for the first time Bach's Passion music, and altogether the two have what would be called in some parts of our country "a mutually agreeable time." As she has no money, she is obliged to let him foot the bills, and, when she finds that he too is going to Elberthal, makes him promise that he will allow her to liquidate the debt there. Arrived at Elberthal, it is speedily discovered that she has a very fine voice, and Herr Von Francius, the musical head of the place, decides that she must cultivate it. At Elberthal, too, she again sees Herr Courvoisier, the stranger of the Cologne depot, who turns out to be the first violin of the Elberthal orchestra. Not being accustomed to meeting gentlemen in such positions, she is overcome with a conflict of emotions and cuts him. Consequently he cuts her on the next opportunity, and for some reason refuses to make up the misunderstanding; so that the first violin and Miss Wedderburn go on living side by side in the little German town of Elberthal (she still owing him three odd thalers) without even a speaking acquaintance.

About the first violin there is always something mysterious, and his way of life is a source of considerable curiosity to his neighbors. He lives with his child, the little Sigmund, and his friend Helfen, but without mingling with other young men, or sharing their sports or conversation, devoted to his violin and wrapped up in his child. Helfen is attached to him because one fine day he was rescued from a fit of the blues, which would soon have made a suicide of him, by the sudden appearance of Herr Courvoisier, and their friendship has ever since been of the closest kind. But even to Helfen Courvoisier does not talk of his past, but darkly hints that at some not distant time his child, Sigmund, must leave him, not to return—why, he cannot or will not explain. Meantime, there is at Elberthal, as at so many other places, a prying, inquisitive woman who, for reasons of her own, does not wish this mystery to continue. Therefore she suggests to one Karl Linders, a common friend of Courvoisier and Helfen, that there are disagreeable stories afloat about the former which he ought to be given an opportunity to contradict. Karl Linders accordingly asks him, in a bluff, off-hand way, to authorize him to say that it is a lie that on a certain occasion he forged and raised money upon a negotiable security. To the amazement of all, Courvoisier neither denies nor confesses, and public opinion in Elberthal settles down to the conviction that the mystery about him is that he is a forger. It is perhaps unnecessary to say that neither May Wedderburn nor Friedhelm Helfen believes a word of the story. Courvoisier goes off, serves in the German army through the Franco-Prussian war, and finally meets Miss Wedderburn again on a sort of a raft borne down the Rhine by a sudden freshet, which has carried them both off unawares. On this raft their troth is plighted, but at the same time she learns that he is under a horrible ban, his fate being such that he must ever be supposed guilty of a forgery which neither he nor she will, under any circumstances, be able to explain. This does not daunt Miss Wedderburn, however, and they get off the raft, as we have said, betrothed. After the raft adventure the reader feels that he must be approaching the end, and so it is. It should have been said before that Sigmund and his father (one of the best things in the book is the description of this strange musical child and his relations with his father) had now been for a long time separated. The child is growing up in the castle of his uncle, the Graf Bruno von Rothenfels, who is, in fact, the brother of the pretended Courvoisier. He still pines for his father, and finally has a stroke of fever, which, happening about the same time that May Wedderburn visits the castle, leads to the outcast being sent for, when the whole forgery business is satisfactorily cleared up. The forgery had really been committed by his wife, the mother of Sigmund, and to conceal her shame he had submitted to ignominy, social degradation, a life of exile, and separation from his son. In this fantastic sense of honor we seem to detect the hand of the female writer of fiction. There could have been no earthly reason for the Count's allowing the mistake to continue after his wife's death, even supposing that it was worth while to allow it to be made originally, inasmuch as the sum total of disgrace must necessarily have been greater for the family to bear, if it were popularly supposed that a member of it were a forger, and for the son to bear, if he were to grow up under the stigma, than if the fact had been confessed that the crime had been committed by a frivolous woman, who might be supposed to have hardly known what she was about. As moralists, we respectfully advise those who are about



to confess forgery to screen their wives, to think twice about it. To writers of fiction who are in search of the highest pitch of self-devotion and sacrifice we commend some other sort of self-oblivion. 'The First Violin' will be found interesting as a picture of German musical life.

*The Story of the Christians and Moors of Spain.* By Charlotte M. Yonge, author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe,' etc. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1878. 16mo. pp. 299.)—Miss Yonge has perhaps done more than any other person to make the stories of the Middle Ages accessible and familiar to young people of the present generation, and a new book of this class from her is always welcome. The present publication is of a more ambitious character than her earlier works, inasmuch as it is not merely a collection of stories, but to all intents and purposes a history of the Spanish peninsula down to the close of the Middle Ages. On the whole it must be admitted that she is not so successful in the field of consecutive history as in that of historical sketches. The narrative chapters are excellent, and display her best qualities as a writer; for example, the chapters upon Al Mansour the Invincible, the Cid, Peter the Cruel, and the Fall of Granada. But the general historical chapters, summing up briefly the annals of the Moorish and Spanish kingdoms at various epochs, are not so good. There is far too much detail, and there is no skill in grouping the events and showing their connection with one another; the result is a lack of clearness and coherence. So it comes that it is not very easy to get a clear notion of the succession of dynasties, and the relations of the petty kingdoms to one another. The kingdom of Portugal—perhaps the most important, and certainly the best governed, of the Christian kingdoms during the fourteenth century—receives very scanty notice; and the great fact of the dynastic history of Spain during the Middle Ages—the growth of the kingdom of Castile and Leon—is quite inadequately treated. The central fact in this growth, indeed, the union of Castile and Leon, is not correctly stated—the error arising from a confusion between Alfonso VIII. of Castile and Alfonso IX. of Leon. The former is always called Alfonso IX. (p. 179, etc.), and his grandfather, the "Emperor," Alfonso VII., is called Alfonso VIII.; while the true Alfonso IX. is called simply Alfonso of Leon (p. 180), and no Alfonso VII. is given at all. Hence the list of the "Kings of Asturias (!) and Leon" (p. x.) mixes strangely the kings of the two countries. Ferdinand III. (the Saint), who united the two kingdoms in 1239, was son of Alfonso IX. by a daughter of Alphonso VIII., and was himself father of Alfonso X., the Wise. On the same page the two Alfonsos of Aragon are wrongly numbered. On page 169 the date 1148 should be 1158; on page 240, 1362 should be 1369.

It is a mistake to speak, as is constantly done, of the *Moors* before the Almoravid conquest in 1091. The correct statement is made on p. 154, where the earlier conquerors are called Saracens, as they should be. This is more than an error in name, inasmuch as the Moorish conquest was a veritable epoch in the history of the Moslems in Spain; the wilful use of the wrong term, therefore, when it was known to be wrong, is inexcusable. We have on page 52, in relation to the establishment of the Kingdom of Aragon, a statement which is, to say the least, ambiguous: that the people met in the Cortes "and had laws, named *fueros*, which gave them rights," etc. The *fueros*, which form so important a feature of the constitutional history of all these kingdoms, were not ordinary laws, but came nearer to what we should call *charters*, being the organic law for the institutions of local self-government—as well rural as municipal—in which, as is well known, the Spanish kingdoms were in advance of all the other nations of Europe. Probably few persons would agree with the author when (p. 2) she calls Theodosius the best of the Roman emperors. It is, no doubt, a slip of memory when, on p. 238, she speaks of "the Schismatical Pope" of Avignon in 1366. At this date the Avignonese pope was all the pope there was; the Schism did not begin until 1378.

The best feature of the book is where passages from ballads are introduced in illustration of the stories. Indeed, if the author had carried out this plan more generally—had made a book like her 'Cameos,' just a succession of stories, and illustrated them liberally with ballads—she would have made a book at once characteristic and unique.

*The Colored Cadet at West Point.* Autobiography of Lieut. Henry Ossian Flipper, U.S.A., first graduate of color from the U. S. Military Academy. (New York: Homer Lee & Co. 1878.)—The disposition of individuals to submit to a certain intellectual dependence on the majority is well known in colleges under different names, and at the United States Military Academy by the expression to "bone popularity." To this was

due the social isolation of the colored cadet Flipper. Numerous instances occurred in which cadets assured him privately of their respect and good will, but avoided or abused him in public in order to keep in the fashion. It became "the thing" to cut Flipper before his talents and amiable qualities were known, and the feeling against him established itself so firmly that it was not until graduation that his fellow-cadets ignored the differences between the colored man and themselves. Except this continued isolation young Flipper had few trials to bear, and these were lightened by the remarkably sensible view which he took of his own position. Knowing the strong prejudice which exists against his race, and understanding the embarrassment of those obliged to associate with him while still, as the result of early training, regarding him as their inferior, and contemplating the possibility of some day being commanded by him, he generously found excuses for those who injured him, and fully appreciated any conduct which tended to improve his position. Flipper's success at the Academy did not so much depend upon the willingness of his brother-cadets to receive a negro among them as it did on the manner in which he himself behaved, and this, happily, was unexceptionable. With Smith, the former colored cadet, the case was very different. His attitude was constantly belligerent; he made no allowance for natural prejudice nor took any pains to overcome it, and his mental outfit was too slender to redeem his want of tact. Flipper's manly bearing and great good-nature at last disarmed his opponents. After alluding to a few cadets who ill-treated him purely from an excessive dread of being "cut" under suspicion of a partiality for "nigger" society, Flipper says: "From the day I entered till the day I graduated I had not cause to utter so much as an angry word." There were gloomy moments when the young man felt his isolation severely, and in some of these his feelings found relief in writing bad verses, of which he has unfortunately given us a specimen.

The *raison d'être* of this book is no doubt a supposed desire on the part of the public to know how the first colored cadet was treated, but that this had already been amply gratified by the press is implied in Lieut. Flipper's remark, on his being given the wrong name in a newspaper: "Of course everybody knows that my name is not William." An interesting account of customs, slang terms, and cadet life generally may save the book from being considered superfluous. Lieut. Flipper describes his Academic experiences with much spirit and attention to detail, telling everything there was to tell, and that in an ingenuous way. He discloses among other military qualities the regulation tenderness for the fair sex, and mentions occasions when he yielded himself "to pure enjoyment such as is found in woman's presence only." He looks back upon his Academy life with true pleasure, and writes of it with enthusiasm, which is as creditable to the Academy as it is to himself. The book is awkwardly put together, and contains newspaper clippings *ad nauseam*; its literary faults may be overlooked in consideration of the author's profession.

*Selections from the Poetical Works of Heinrich Heine.* Translated into English. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—"The first duty of any translator of Heine's verse is to admit the impossibility of doing justice to the incomparable grace and charm of his style. Of all poets he is perhaps the most untranslatable, and yet, by a strange perversity of fate, which he himself would have been the first to appreciate, the experiment is found to have a peculiar fascination not easy to resist." So runs the preface of this pretty, anonymous volume, and the truth of the remarks quoted prepares one for the more than ordinary success of the translations which follow. To begin with, what takes them out of the common is the absence of stiffness and of unidiomatic expressions which are the invariable penalty of strict adhesion to the form and letter of Heine's verse, especially in the case of the shorter metres. One other liberty was necessary before the English product could become poetry and not mere rhyming, and that was to alter the stress and proportion of the original as the genius of our language not less than the translator's exigencies required; to omit lines deliberately, or to expand where fidelity to the pattern would have squeezed the poetry out; and, above all, to maintain elevation of style whenever the expression drops, as it so often does with Heine, to the colloquial or even vulgar. The failure to apply this correction, however pardonable as the result of conscientiousness or reverence, nevertheless accounts for the small progress that has been made towards naturalizing Heine in our English anthology. The translator with whom we are dealing has been saved by his artistic sense.

We do not, however, assert for him a more than relative superiority. Sometimes he appears without good reason to have preferred a paraphrase

to literalness, and perhaps if challenged he could not always defend his larger license. But in any comparison of him with his predecessors the excellence of his method will certainly be confessed. Such a comparison may be instructively made with Mr. Charles G. Leland's complete version, which always suggests more truly the German text, and almost never blinds the reader to the fact of its being a translation, and in which the style is recklessly faithful. From the volume before us we have room only for a short specimen ('Lyrisches Intermezzo,' xxv.):

"Two friends, when they are parting, say  
'Farewell,' with many a sigh;  
They wring each other's hands and fall  
To weeping bitterly.

"But we, what time our parting was,  
Shed not a single tear;  
Our sobbing and our sighing came  
In after days, my dear."

It may not be superfluous to remark the traces of Heine observable in certain poems of Longfellow's and of Lowell's. The latter's "Ember-Picture" is quite in the manner of the elder poet.

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